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A WEEKLY COMPENDIUM OF THE CONTEMPORANEOUS THOUGHT OF THE WORLD.

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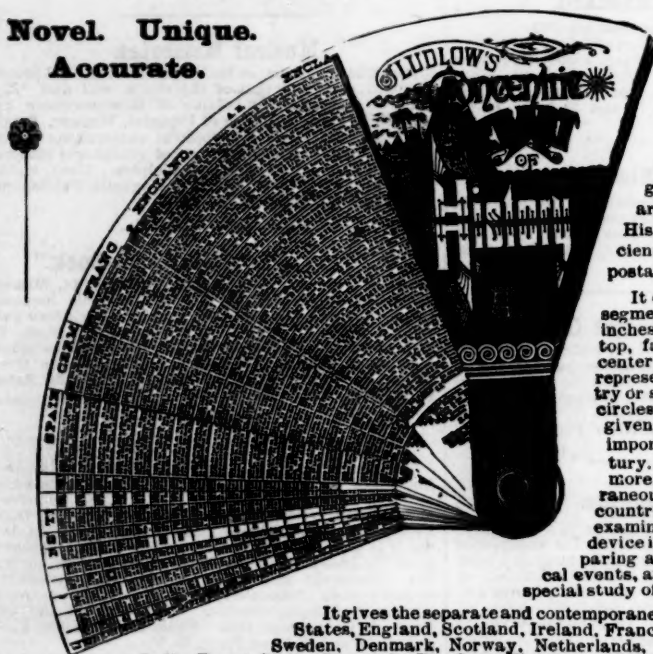
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In order to increase the value of the DIGEST, as a repository of contemporaneous thought and opinion, every subscriber will be furnished with a complete and minute INDEX of each volume.

The Reviews.

POLITICAL.

PROTECTIONISM IN THE UNITED STATES.

N. C. FREDRIKSEN.

Journal des Economistes, Paris, June.

DURING a long stay in the United States, I have studied with great care the effect of protectionism on the American farmers.

Everything that the American farmer has to buy is much higher in price than it is in Europe. From his clothing, which very often costs twice what it ought to, to the salt which his family and cattle consume, all is excessively dear. An exact calculation of the damage done the farmer in this way would naturally be very difficult to make, and the estimates which are put forth vary much one from another. Anyway, however, these losses appear to exceed billions of francs a year.

On the other hand, the sale of the products of the soil becomes more and more difficult. If the States buy less from Europe, Europe has less means with which to buy from America. The United States buy tea and silk from China and coffee

from Brazil, but send nothing to these countries in exchange. England, which buys the most from the United States, sends cotton stuffs to the East Indies, which sell opium to China. The difference of exchange proceeding from this commercial movement and especially from the European products which the United States do not buy, is such, that it can be demonstrated that all the profits resulting from exports to China and South America go to England, instead of the United States.

The income of American farmers is determined by the price of what they produce at Liverpool and in the other markets of the world.

The American farmer may be considered a workman who works by the piece. He has a better market than the agricultural workman of Europe; his gains are larger than the European workman of the same profession; yet that is not because his labor is more productive, but is due partly to the rich nature of his soil, partly to his energy, his intelligence, and the use he makes of machines and other labor-saving appliances. On the other hand, all the expenses of the farmer, as well as of the other consumers, being increased by the tariff, he sells at a good price, but what he buys is dear.

The transport of products costs more under a protectionist régime than it would cost with free trade. Ships, not being able to take on their return voyages from Europe cargoes of coal, metal, and other merchandise, which would contribute to meet the expenses of the voyage, are obliged to raise the price of freight. The construction of railways also is made more costly by the tariff; so that from all points of view, free trade would facilitate the circulation of products.

If there are in the United States industries which prosper, it is only because they have put a tax on other industries under the form of duties. Thus it is that there are in Pennsylvania great forges which yield a magnificent revenue to their owners, thanks to the almost prohibitory tariff which permits them to charge a high price for their products. It is the same case with certain proprietors of spinning factories, of mines, and so on. All these industries, however, live, like parasites, at the expense of the farmers and other consumers of their products.

It was these pensioned industries which in 1888 poured millions of dollars into the treasury of the Republican party, because they feared that the triumph of Cleveland would be also the triumph of free trade. These industries provided for the party which was victorious in 1888 the means of spending, for example, in the State of New York alone, more than \$9,000,000 with which to buy votes openly.

These exaggerated efforts have certainly much contributed to bring about the remarkable popular reaction now manifesting itself in favor of free trade.

The extraordinary profits of certain industries have been increased by different methods of creating "trusts" and "rings," which are rendered possible by the protection which excludes foreign competition. These monopolies cannot be repressed by any legal means. Some of these great "trusts" have been advantageous to the public by lessening the cost of production but this occurs only in the case of industries, like that of petroleum, where there is no tariff to put the people at the mercy of of native producers.

Protection increases the tendency—already very marked—of the Americans and certain classes of emigrants, especially the Irish, to collect in the towns, rather than cultivate the earth. Very often European workmen have been brought over to establish and get started new industries developed by protection. This artificial concentration of the working population favors the development of socialist or half-socialist groups, trade unions, and other like associations, which have already become very powerful in the United States.

The price of farms has fallen in the Eastern States as far

west as Ohio and Indiana. Their price continues to rise in the West. This development, however, would be much more considerable, the value of farms would be much greater, and mortgages on them better guaranteed, if agriculture did not have to support the heavy burden of protection, and the consequences resulting therefrom. Still the farmers have recently begun to calculate what the protectionist system costs them, and to take account of all the consequences, direct or indirect, resulting therefrom.

New measures, preventing the importation of many agricultural products, especially from Canada, do much damage to particular localities in the United States, as well as Canada, without bettering in the least the situation of American farmers, since the price of their products is fixed by the great international markets. Even the treaties of reciprocity made with other American States or colonies are but a too limited recognition of the great principles of commercial liberty. These treaties cannot create commerce where its natural conditions do not exist; and the most important States of South America, like the Argentine Republic and Chili, understand clearly that it is better worth their while to develop commercial relations with the industrial nations of Europe, which have need of their raw materials, than with a country which, like themselves, has raw materials to sell.

In vain will the protectionists try to stem the tide of free exchange among the American people. The free-exchange movement runs no risk of being turned from its course, save by mingling with it doctrines relating to a silver standard and certain other fantastic theories. Nevertheless, popular discussion has assumed such proportions that there is no room for doubting that the American people, especially in the great agricultural West, have firmly resolved to maintain liberty in opposition to the stipendiary politicians and the manufacturers interested in keeping up the "milking" of the public by tariff duties.

A TROUBLE BEFORE AMERICA,

WARNEFORD MOFFATT.

Blackwood's Magazine, Edinburgh, June.

A FEELING of doubt is growing among thoughtful Americans concerning the future of the nation. It is felt that democracy in its truest principle is not fulfilling the expectation of its early years. Its cosmopolitan characteristic—the good of the people—is losing itself in the parochial idea of the good of a particular people according to their voting capacity, and a corresponding selfishness is permeating the mass of society, which must rob the individual of generous instincts. The enthusiastic Socialist, bent on the propagation of a new gospel, has so far taken no account of its narrowing tendency in his dreams for the renovation of the State; but under conditions of moral deterioration, such as presidential elections have latterly made apparent, it is alone sufficient to wreck all schemes of improvement whose foundation is laid on a typical humanity, without any trial being made of their intrinsic value. The greed and covetousness associated with the early discovery of the continent by the foreigner have left their impress on its expansion, side by side with that of the Pilgrim Fathers; and the fabled fountain, which at one time seemed to have been found in the development of the democratic spirit, is still to be sought by every one who desires the happiness of man.

The progress of the world has been accelerated by the influence of the United States, which consolidated freedom and taught the way to wealth by throwing to the winds every vestige of "ancient prejudice"; but the lever that accomplished these results was education, and the early advantage derived from its adoption is no longer exclusively retained. The increase of wealth, nevertheless, which remains the chief feature of the gain, cannot be taken as the gauge of progress, though it is commonly accepted as evidence; for although its distribution is greater than at any other time, enabling vast numbers to enjoy

a large material happiness, its whole drift, except in the British Isles, runs in the direction of the creation of monopolies; and so long as this is the case, the interests of the many must be sacrificed to those of the few. The fight for freedom in America, the rebellion against dictation, after destroying all obstacles to that improvement of the race which is now a reality, has thus lost its prime significance in the modern unfolding of events. The selfishness of the nation in upholding a system of Protection, greatly accentuated by the McKinley Tariff, is beginning to be reflected in the selfishness of the individual seeking a special good.

That the adoption of Protection has increased the spirit of selfishness is evident not alone in the United States. We see it everywhere in national desire to benefit at some other nation's expense, as if such a thing had never been shown to be impossible, by the laws of political economy. In America, however, this spirit is beginning to make itself felt to such an extent, that the people, as shown by the November elections, are becoming vaguely conscious by the load of taxation heaped upon them, of the necessity for tariff reform. The passage of the McKinley Bill demonstrates most clearly the blindness, which has fallen on political Americans owing to the cultivation of selfishness.

The authors of the tariff are the capitalists of the East, who, having had so far the voting power in their hands, have been able to obtain exorbitant duties for their own benefit. A high cost of production is supported, which places the Western wheat grower in difficulties from the competition of other nations, until it is almost a matter of existence to be able to produce cheaper. But he is forced by the tariff to supply his wants through the Eastern manufacturer, who cannot allow duties to be effectively reduced without being satisfied to work in the light of competition at the minimum of profit, a thing he is not even willing to think of, as the McKinley Bill clearly shows.

There is thus, in the difference between the interests of the East and the West, all the elements of discord and disruption, so that when Congress is controlled by the West, a reversal of the policy of the East may be expected. When this reversal takes place it must lead to furious dissension, and the world will see enacted over again the spectacle of an assault on vested interests. This will be a crucial test of the temper of the people.

Manhood suffrage has been basely used to subserve private interests to the detriment of the nation's, thus showing what a capable instrument of mischief it may become, when worked by a selfish democracy; having once gone persistently wrong on a fundamental question, it cannot recover itself without giving rise to a period of even unpremeditated retaliation. As it enables the East to maintain a tariff for its sole benefit, it will hereafter be necessary for the West, by the same power, to destroy that tariff, and kill off the high-priced raw material, which is injurious to its development. Monopolies will meet with their reward; but in the end the sufferer through it all will be the Eastern workingman, who upholds the present system in the belief that it is in his interest; for when capital has retired from the position it now occupies, as it certainly will with the first breath of adversity, the artisan will be thrown on his resources. He does not see that he is the tool of the capitalist until the question is one of wages, and that the farmer will sacrifice him remorselessly, because of the profits he has taken out of the West. His notion of success is centred in himself, the advancement of his town or State, while the country at large is a geographical expression. The situation having been created by the ballot-box, unity must suffer in the first instance, as Protection is the father of provincialisms, and these will be called into play from the habit, long fostered, of dwelling on local considerations. Here, then, is the heart of the matter. Ignorance and selfishness—the characteristics of a great part of the immigrant population, who are mainly responsible for the

increase of crime—will add to the confusion of the moment, and those foreign Americans, still cherishing the traditions and the language of their native homes, will snatch at opportunity to obtain some advantage for their communities. The stupidity of having permitted European nationalities to retain their separate existence, will be acknowledged when too late to be easily remedied; while the other interests, social and religious, will also strive for the mastery by endeavoring to possess the reins of government through the power of the casting vote in Congress.

In the general disorder that must everywhere follow, in the struggle for local ascendancy, the ultimate danger will be that of a Federal nature, till, with the exasperation of strife, party spirit will break loose and temporarily pass beyond control, so that it would not be surprising if history should repeat itself and attempts be made to form small independent centres. Thus in a free State, selfishness, symbolized by Protection, recoils on the heads of its worshippers.

CHARACTER AND POLICY OF EMPEROR WILLIAM II.

PROFESSOR HEINRICH GEFFCKEN, PRIVY COUNCILLOR.

Forum, New York, July.

I.

As prince, the present German Emperor was a much misjudged man; being chiefly known as an ardent practical soldier and an eager student of military science. The so-called Count Vassili (now unmasked as a French spy, M. Monidon) in his interesting, but libellous, book, *La Société de Berlin*, even credited him with the ambition of emulating the feats of Frederick II., and at the same time represented him as a libertine, which was absolute slander, his domestic life being a model of purity. In politics he was believed to be a devoted pupil of Bismarck, adhering besides to the divine right of kings, with a strong leaning to reactionary tendencies. This presentment has been completely refuted by a three years' reign.

He certainly admired Prince Bismarck's foreign policy, which had raised Germany to a first-rate power and made Berlin the centre of European affairs, and it was but natural that he was not equally conversant with the Chancellor's home policy and its disastrous effects. When, however, the unexpected arrived, and both his predecessors, one after the other, were snatched away, we may confidently assume that their youthful heir took the seat of his forefathers with the firm resolution to govern as well as to reign. Under William I. Bismarck had enjoyed nearly absolute sway; in everything but military affairs he was master. William I. was not blind to the faults of his overbearing Chancellor, but he thought him indispensable.

His lamented son, succeeding him, was too ill to inaugurate a new system, although his programme of government with which he took the Chancellor by surprise, showed that he had ideas of his own.

When William II., came to the throne, Bismarck expected to enter upon a new lease of unlimited power. As his press confidant, Moritz Busch, has told us, the Chancellor said in 1885: "I rely upon Prince William, who has the character and the spirit of an officer of the Guard, and that alone can save us." At first it seemed that his belief was well founded, everything going on as before; but soon signs of discord arose. A series of imprudently-begun trials proved abortive and cast disgrace on the government, and the slanderous attack on Sir Robert Morier, British Ambassador at St. Petersburg, ended in a signal defeat, and many other occurrences in internal affairs indicated that the old Chancellor and the young Emperor were not in entire accord.

Even in foreign politics, the Chancellor began to blunder, although this was mostly the fault of his eldest son, who had inherited all his rudeness without any of his talents, and whom

he had made Secretary of State. He entered upon an ill-advised quarrel with the Swiss Federal Council, on account of the imprisonment, in Switzerland, of Wohlgenuth, a German police agent, who had been sent there as a spy and *agent provocateur* against German Social Democrats. This campaign ended in a defeat of German diplomacy.

These were the forebodings of the coming storm which led to Bismarck's dismissal; it was the social question that brought on the final rupture. The Emperor resolved to overrule the Chancellor's opposition to the enactment of laws for the protection of women's and children's labor, Sunday rest, etc.; and on February 4, 1890, appeared an Imperial decree, favoring such protection and calling an international conference to that end. Prince Bismarck resigned the Ministry of Commerce and was replaced by Herr von Berlepsch, who was to preside over the Conference.

These exciting events fell in the midst of the elections for the new Reichstag, and their result was a crushing defeat of the Chancellor by the scattering to the winds of his former docile majority, formed by a coalition of Conservatives and National Liberals. The Chancellor sought to meet the exigency, by securing a coalition of the Conservatives with the Ultramontane Centre, and had a confidential interview with Dr. Windthorst, the leader of that party. When the Emperor heard of this interview, he called upon the Chancellor, and asked to hear what had been said. Bismarck declined to give any account of it, as he said he could not submit his intercourse with deputies to any control, and added that he was ready to resign if he no longer possessed his sovereign's confidence. But he did not send in his resignation until, to his astonishment, an Imperial aide-de-camp came in the evening to remind him of his words by command of the Sovereign. Even when he was thus compelled, he never dreamed of the possibility of his resignation being accepted. The step was intended as a pressure to bring the Emperor to terms, such as he had frequently used under William I. when that monarch was obstinate. But he was mistaken in his "new lord"; the resignation was forthwith accepted. He was thunderstruck when he received the Emperor's speedy answer, and a stormy scene ensued; but his reign was ended.

II.

If the choice of fit ministers is proof of the capacity of a sovereign for government, the Emperor William II., may already be said to have achieved success.

The successorship of Bismarck was a great difficulty. The true test of the highest order of statesmanship is its success in forming a school. But Bismarck always adhered to the Cæsarian system—the "one man" who undertakes to think for the whole people. With him to govern was not to persuade, but to command, and representative government was to command with a flourish of speeches, which should always end in a happy subserviency to the ruling minister. Such a man could have no school; as soon as he saw a rising talent he pressed it into his service or crushed it. Therefore, when he was dismissed, Germany had able diplomatists and administrators, but no statesmen. It was out of the question to put in the place of the all-powerful minister one of the ambassadors or great nobles, who may be good in their way but are political nonentities. Neither had the parliamentary parties a man fit to take the helm of State. Years before the question was likely to become practical, I maintained that the only possible successor to Bismarck would be a politically gifted general, a man at once imposing and conciliatory, and the choice seemed to me to lie between Count Waldersee and General Caprivi. The late Dr. Windthorst, one of the keenest politicians of the Reichstag, shared this opinion, but gave a decided preference to Caprivi.

The Emperor, without knowing Windthorst's opinion, called Caprivi to the Chancellorship, and thus has proved his capacity to place the right man in the right place. His later

appointments of Herr Miquel as Finance Minister, of General Kaltenborn to the War Office, of Herr von Hayden as Minister of Agriculture, and Count Zedlitz as Minister of Public Instruction have been equally successful; and the internal reforms which have been carried are already of great importance.

III.

In the matter of foreign policy the Emperor has shown that he has none of the warlike propensities that have been fathered upon him. He guaranteed peace by ratifying in person at Vienna and Rome the engagements entered upon by his grandfather in the Triple Alliance, and these relations will certainly be strengthened by commercial treaties. He paid a visit to England, clearing away all previous misunderstandings between the two countries, and establishing a cordiality which found its expression in the Queen's appointing him an Admiral of the British fleet. He has reestablished good relations with Switzerland. He has profited by his long-standing personal relations with the Czar, to convince him of his peaceful tendencies, and thus successfully opposed the plans of a Franco-Russian alliance. He has proved to France that all he wishes is the establishment of good relations between the two countries on the basis of the *status quo*.

At all events, the Emperor was justified in saying at his speech at Dusseldorf:

I shall be glad if, by the assistance of Heaven, I shall be able to govern my country in peace. I only wish the European peace was lying in my hand: then I would take good care that it should never be disturbed. However that may be, I shall, at all events, leave nothing untried, and, as far as I am concerned, labor that it may not be disturbed.

Taking all in all, we may say that the Emperor's short reign has been successful, and bodes well for the future, and that at present there is perhaps no life more precious to Germany or to Europe than that of William II.

FOUR NEW GREAT ENGLISH STATES.

MARCEL LABORDERE.

Annales de l'Ecole Libre des Sciences Politiques, Paris, April to June.

ENGLAND is beyond all other nations a colonizer. She alone has a chain of colonies which encircles the globe. She alone has learned the art of keeping together up to the present time—whatever changes there may be in the future—these numerous possessions, with so many different climates and inhabited by so many different peoples. Any nation that wishes to colonize should study English methods. I say methods, because they are various. English plans are suited to particular circumstances, though they have this in common, that England does not spend on the colonies she founds a penny more than she can help.

One of the English methods is to grant to a company a royal charter, which gives to the company political powers. This she has done in four recent cases. Such a charter she gave to the *British North Borneo Company*, November 1, 1881, to the *Royal Niger Company*, July 10, 1886, to the *Imperial British East Africa Company*, September 3, 1888, and the *British South Africa Company*, October 29, 1889.

The Borneo Company has jurisdiction over a region as vast as Great Britain, with a surface of 31,000 square miles, and a coast line of 600 miles. The principal products of this territory are swallows' nests, gutta percha, camphor, caoutchouc, tobacco, sugar cane, pepper, coffee, sago, tapioca, indigo, pearls, and sponges. The nominal capital of the company is \$10,000,000, the par value of each share being \$100.

The Niger Company has an autonomy of its own, with rights of sovereignty which extend over the many mouths of the Niger and an immense territory. Its products are palm oil, caoutchouc, indigo, mahogany, bamboo, rice, maize, coffee, sugar cane, tobacco, millet, sweet potatoes. The Company bought from Great Britain the protectorate of the territories of the Niger, by issuing bonds of the Niger State to the amount of \$1,250,000. The Company employs 71 Europeans only.

The East Africa Company has a capital of \$10,000,000, with shares at the par value of \$100. The boundaries of the vast territories over which the company has jurisdiction were established by the Anglo-German treaty of 1890. It must suffice to say that these territories cover a surface of more than nine hundred and sixty thousand square miles, and its coast line is 320 miles long. The company rules as far as Lake Victoria Nyanza, to navigate which the several parts of a steamer constructed at Glasgow were shipped in the month of December, 1890. The company, like the Niger Company, has humanitarian views; it has prohibited the importation of alcohol; it has softened more and more the lot of the slaves, and by a system of purchases has freed 4,000 of them. In Africa the company has but fifty European agents, nearly all of whom are in perfect health.

Finally, the South Africa Company follows successfully in the track of the three older companies. It has a capital of \$5,000,000, in shares at the par value of \$5 each. Its territories extend from the high and low Zambesi to the north and south, separated from the eastern coast by the colony of Mozambique. It has put steamers on Lake Nyassa. Since November 2, 1889, it has begun works to extend the net of railways from the Cape across Bechuanaland.

These four chartered companies have in their charters the same provisions in many cases. They have full power to do everything necessary to maintain public order and defend the country. They can raise revenue by custom duties, to meet public expenses. They have authority to construct public works, such as railways, ports, and telegraphs, to open mines, to cultivate lands, either by themselves or their lessees, to create banks. Commerce is free, as well for foreigners as the English. They can prohibit trade in opium, alcohol, arms, and munitions. Each company has chosen, with the approbation of the Secretary of State and the Lords Commissioners of the Admiralty, a special flag, which floats over all its vessels and its territories.

There are great advantages in this style of colonization. A chartered company has fewer officers than the British Government would employ, and demands from each of these officers a greater amount of work and greater fitness for the work. The agents are not subject to the fluctuations of politics, and, therefore, remain longer at their post, a very important matter where the conditions of life in a country are of a very special character. These companies, having both a commercial and a political character, profit in their political and military operation by their experience in commercial matters.

For developing a new country, the first needs are public works—railways, ports, roads, and the like. In constructing these a home government too often manifests want of judgment in locating them, of economy in constructing them, and a difficulty in getting proper supervision. A commercial company, however, is pretty sure to find out exactly what is needed, and construct with proper judgment and due economy. In England, moreover, a company, which is at the same time political and commercial, has a strong chance of procuring some man of high rank or reputation to be its president. It may be taken for granted that the English Government does not grant a charter except to persons who have started the enterprise and given proof that they are able to conduct it well.

By making the par value of the shares small—\$5 for example—the number of persons who will risk something in the venture is greatly increased. Thus, not only is the capital more easily raised, but the number of persons interested is so large, and they present such a strong front when united, that in conducting the enterprise a vigilant eye must be kept on their interests. Workmen, employés of every kind, people of small means, become shareholders, and from shareholding to emigration is but a step. Thus population increases and the country is developed by those interested in it.

In this way during the last ten years we have beheld the birth of four great English States, which all together cover a surface nearly as large as Europe; and this work has not cost the English treasury a shilling.

A BRIEF FOR CONTINENTAL UNITY.

WALTER BLACKBURN HARTE.

New England Magazine, Boston, July.

IF the tariff wall was removed from across this continent, and internal free trade adopted, it is not supposable that in the consideration or adoption of commercial treaties with foreign nations, either Canada or the United States could long act independently of each other. As a commercial unit they would be compelled to be a political unit. If the United States declared for free trade to-morrow, and threw its markets open to the world, as Great Britain has done, the people of Canada, unless desirous of committing commercial suicide, would at once seek admission to the Union. Canada can hold her own fairly well, *with an enormous national debt*, as long as the United States continues a policy of Protection; but Canada could not manage at all with a great free-trade nation of sixty-five millions on her southern border. Free trade would bring the Canadians to their knees, while McKinley Bills only arouse a bitter spirit of retaliation and dislike. For Canadians are apt to believe such legislation intended as a blow at their trade, being unaware that its true object is the squeezing the purse of American consumers for the enrichment of a clique of millionaire monopolists. It is well to remember in considering the future of Canada, that Bismarck secured German unity by welding all the States into a commercial whole, which he easily converted into a solid empire.

As a Canadian journalist, I have visited every province of the Dominion, and gauged the public feeling in each, and I may safely say that the Canadians as a people laugh to scorn any idea of closer political relations with England. The whole trend of public opinion is in the opposite direction. The most popular and influential leaders in Canada are already openly looking forward to a severance of the tie with Great Britain. The Conservative Government only retains power by a curious compound of loyalty and nationalism, which, reduced to plain English, means: Canada for the Canadians. Sir John Macdonald, in the discussion of the national policy, was warned by the Imperial Conservatives that a protective policy for Canada would injure the British connection, and his emphatic response was, "So much the worse for the British connection." Those friends of unrestricted reciprocity who are dubbed "traitors" by the Government organs, retort by reminding them of Sir John's famous and popular reply to the Imperial croakers.

Canadians are essentially democratic in their ideas. Only a person gifted with microscopic powers of observation can discover any material difference between Canadians in the English-speaking progressive provinces, and Americans—that is, dissimilarities which are not equally marked between the inhabitants of different sections of any country. There is not the striking contrast that exists between the people of Massachusetts and Virginia; or between a Londoner and a genuine Yorkshireman or Cornishman.

The anti-American sentiment has absolutely no existence among the masses. Nearly every family in Canada has a son, and sometimes half a dozen sons, or nephews, or nieces, living and working in American cities; and uncommercial unions in the way of matrimonial alliances between Americans and Canadian belles are of daily occurrence. The continent of North America is the country of the Canadian of this generation, not a section of it. In his ideas, religion, aptitude, training, business and social relations, he is practically as American as any man born under the Stars and Stripes. He is more in sympathy with the traditions of this continent than the average New Yorker, who is often the antithesis of everything truly American. New York—not Montreal or Toronto—is the least American city to be found between Hudson's Bay and the Gulf of Mexico.

It is ridiculous to imagine that the Anglo-Saxon race can build up and maintain two separate and aggressive nations on this continent. The lines of demarkation between the two

countries are altogether arbitrary, and the intersection of railroads and canals has in reality, though not in law, effected a complete fusion of commercial interests. The difficulties in the way of assimilation consist almost purely of tariff entanglements; and these, with an enlightened government, are easily disposed of. It is not too much to say that the election of an honest government, for the people and not for the plutocracy of the United States, which would put the commerce of the nation upon the only logical basis of national, and not clique, prosperity, would soon bring about the end of all prejudices now existing between the United States, Canada, and England, and establish the most cordial relations between the three peoples, now practically united in the aims of a common democracy.

A change from the existing order of things in Canada is inevitable; and the sudden conversion of Sir John Macdonald and his followers to the unrestricted reciprocity idea is one of the surest indications of the fact that commercial union, with its natural sequence of political union, will be the supreme issue in Canada at no distant date. The whole Dominion is saturated with free-trade ideas, and the growing discontent with protection in the United States is a good augury of success in future negotiations when true democracy and liberalism shall have obtained both at Washington and at Ottawa—events which present indications seem to point to as being possible before the end of this century.

In 1900, this continent will probably have shaken off the last thread of monarchism, and become one harmonious and powerful republic—truly, the greatest nation in the world.

SOCIOLOGICAL.

RECENT PROGRESS OF PROFIT-SHARING ABROAD.

DAVID KINLEY.

Quarterly Journal of Economics, Boston, July.

THE past three years have witnessed remarkable progress in the adoption of profit-sharing in Great Britain. The Parliamentary Report on the subject, published last January, gives a list of forty-seven firms in Great Britain who use the plan of pure, as distinguished from indeterminate, profit-sharing. Four of these adopted the system in 1888, six in 1889, and twenty in 1890. The number of employes affected aggregates 7,694 for twenty-five firms for which the numbers are given.

The number of employes participating in profits with the firm of Cassell & Co., publishers, has increased 100 within two years. The average annual payments have been over £914, and in 1889 the provident fund amounted to over £9,000. The participants in the firm of Hazel, Watson & Viney, printers, have increased 900, and the average labor dividend for the past two years has been £605. Bushill & Sons, printers, have made a gain of 50; and W. A. Hartley, of Liverpool, gained 300. Blundell, Spence & Co., report a decrease of 30 participants; but for the year ending March, 1890 they divided among their 310 workmen £1,027. The most remarkable point in the growth of the system is the great number of firms by whom it has recently been adopted for the first time. Twenty new firms began it in 1890. The most notable of these cases is, perhaps, that of the South Metropolitan Gas Company, of London, employing about 3,500 men in winter, and about 2,000 in summer. The system was started by a gift from the company to every workman regularly in their employ on June 30, 1889, who should sign an agreement to remain in their employ for three months. This gift was 2 per cent. on his wages for the year ending June, 1887, 3 per cent. for the next year, and 4 per cent. for the third. This amount of 9 per cent. on one year's wages was placed to the workman's credit on the Company's books, to remain for five years at 4 per cent. interest.

By June, 1890, about 1,500 men were qualified to profit by

the scheme, and received £5,377 in addition to their wages. The officers of the company say that good results are already manifest. There is greater diligence among the men, they make suggestions for reducing expenses, and, in general, they show a deeper interest in their work. Clark, Nickolls & Coombs, confectioners, of London, pay over £30,000 a year in wages, and employ over 1,000 men. Their plan is: Net profits of over 6 per cent. on capital are divided equally between the shareholders and employes. No restrictions whatever, except the one year's period of employment, are laid on the workmen. W. D. & H. O. Wills, tobacco manufacturers, of Bristol, employ about 1,000 hands; in 1889, 11¼ per cent. was paid on wages and salaries of the year. An examination of the provisions for division of profits shows that of the sixteen new adherents to this policy in 1890, for whom returns are given, eleven paid the extra remuneration to the laborers wholly in cash, three paid part in cash and part to a provident fund, one paid all to a provident fund, and one paid in shares of the company. This reveals a great change in the mode of application of the system in England. The recent cases show a rapid growth of the cash-payment system, which has obtained in the United States.

In France, the original home of profit-sharing, the system has continued to extend. The famous old establishments are in a flourishing condition. At Godin's there are now 1,600 hands, 961 of whom received additions to their wages in 1889. This is on the stock system. The Piat Iron Foundries, at Paris and Soissons, paid 4 per cent. of wages in 1889 to 206 employes. The paper manufactory of M. Laroche-Joubert during the ten years, 1879-89, paid £44,880 in dividends on wages. Profit-sharing has had to win its way against the prejudices of employers and the ignorance and impatience of workingmen. It has also had to contend with the influence of labor organizations. In the line of social results, the stock system would seem to promise most. This gradually makes the laborers part-owners of the business, and tends, therefore, to the establishment of limited coöperation. Experience shows that profit-sharing opens the way to some improvements, even if it does not justify the enthusiastic remark of Von Thünen, that it is "the only salvation of the laboring class."

THE MORALITY OF NATIONS.

PROFESSOR W. R. SORLEY.

International Journal of Ethics, Phila., July.

SINCE nations differ from individuals, the laws of national morality cannot be identified with those of private morality.

Second. Since a nation is a body of individuals connected by race and territory and organized for political purposes—since, therefore, it is an organism consisting in every part of moral organisms—the nation itself is the subject of morality.

Third. This conclusion is not affected by the almost complete absence from international relations of the usual sanctions of morality, seeing that morality is not, like law, dependent on sanctions, and that even private morality is, to a large extent, beyond the reach of social and political sanctions.

Fourth. The duty of self-preservation and self-development holds for a nation in a way for which it does not hold for an individual.

Fifth. This duty of self-preservation should be regarded as holding for all nations, so that when different nations are brought in contact, their relations one to another should be determined by an equal regard for the rights of all.

We are all willing to acknowledge that we are under some sort of moral law; but it seems to be a moot point whether there is such a thing as a morality of nations as well as a morality of individuals.

Can we say of the State as we do of the individual, that it *ought* to do or abstain from anything? Is there to be found a moral code for nations corresponding to the moral law to

which the individual conscience bows? The State is the people but the people *organized for certain purposes*. Its decision or action is not an individual or personal one. The State moves in a different region, so to speak, from that in which individuals move. The State has a twofold activity, first, in relation to its own citizens, secondly, in relation to other States. Can individual and national activities be regulated by the same ethical principles? On the one side we have all the plain people declaring that the State ought to be moral as they are moral; on the other, the diplomatists of all ages asserting that in this sense no State ever was, or could afford to be, moral. Between two such combatants, fighting with different weapons, how can the conflict be brought to an issue? Fortunately we have not far to go for a fairly precise statement of the plain man's case. The London *Spectator*, of October 5, 1889, says:

We maintain that a State can and occasionally does commit all the crimes possible to a corporation . . . above all, a State can murder and it can steal; and it commits the first crime when it executes anyone knowing the execution to be unjust, and the second when it orders one man or one class to pay special taxes in order to benefit another.

There is a confusion at the outset in saying that a State can commit a crime. It is the law of the land, and the penal sanction which follows law, that makes an act a crime. It is absurd, therefore, to say that the State, acting legally, could commit a crime. A law may be so bad as to make it a moral duty to disobey it; but to be *criminal* it would have to be a violation of law. Unjust taxation is not theft, for it carries with it the sanction of law. We call the act dishonest only when we are judging the agents who legalize the act as individuals. The appropriateness of the charge of dishonesty will thus depend upon the motives of the *individuals*. The code of individual morals cannot, therefore, be applied to the State.

Because the State cannot steal, it does not follow that it may not be unjust. The recognition that the law of the land—statute law—may be bad, and should be altered or amended, implies a higher law by which it may be judged and to which it ought to conform. The State stands to its citizens in a relation which no one individual bears to another. To further its ends it may take their property and even their life. Yet it is clear that it would be unjust to do so at random. Such sacrifice of individual property or life can only be justified when necessary for the common welfare.

But the State has to do not only with its own citizens, but also with other States. In this region of foreign relations the conflict between the different views of national morality is accentuated and brought to a point. There is sufficient analogy to give an appearance of reason to the assertion that when different States are brought into relation, their conduct should be governed by the same laws as those which regulate the conduct of individuals. But the analogy is weak enough at places to give support to the contention of Lord Lytton, who says:

The subjects of private morals, that is to say, individuals, differ from the subjects of public morals, that is to say, nations, so widely, that hardly a single proposition applicable to the one can be properly applied to the others. Of the classes of obligations which constitute private morals, only one, namely, justice, has a place in public morals at all; and the sort of justice which finds its place in public morals is totally different from the justice which relates to individuals. It is far less definite, it cannot be codified, and it consists mainly in moderation and kindly prudence.

In international relations we enter a region where definitions are obscure, and from which the sanctions with which we are so familiar are absent. We may even go to the extent of saying that there is no such thing as international law, for law implies a sovereign power to enforce its obedience by penal sanctions. But this is no good reason for concluding that there is no such thing as international morality, or, with Lord Lytton, that "the sort of justice which finds its place in public morals, is totally different from the justice which relates to individuals."

National morality differs from individual morals in this respect, that a nation's first duty may be said to be to itself.

There is no selfishness, there is only patriotism, in its recognizing the fact, and acting upon it.

The principles of morality have as yet but a partial triumph in regulating the relations of States. But their validity does not depend on the recognition hitherto obtained by them, and the intercourse of nations can only reach a full measure of development under a common moral law, which recognizes the rights of one nation as of equal value with the rights of another.

Another conclusion has yet to be added:

Sixth. As long as there is no superior power to enforce international morality, that nation only is wise which is prepared to defend its rights.

ALCOHOL IN SWITZERLAND.

PAUL LEROY-BEAULIEU.

L'Economiste Français, Paris, June 20.

FOR the last half-dozen years, whenever the subject of financial reform has been agitated, there has been talk about establishing a government monopoly of alcohol in France. This monopoly may exist under different forms, more or less complete. There may be a monopoly of the manufacture and the sale, or a monopoly of the rectification alone, or a monopoly of the rectification and the trade in alcohol combined. A project has been introduced in the Chamber of Deputies for a monopoly of the rectification and also, I think, of the wholesale trade in the article. In the discussions on this project the example of Switzerland has been cited.

Four years ago Switzerland established a monopoly in alcohol. The federal law creating this monopoly was passed 22-23 December, 1886, and, by demand of 52,412 citizens, the law was submitted to the referendum. The popular vote approved of the law on May 15, 1887, 267,122 electors voting in favor of it and 138,496 against it. Thus the Swiss experiment is more than four years old—not a very long period.

The Swiss law was, or was intended to be, at once, a moral law, a hygienic law, an economic law, and a fiscal law. It was intended to diminish the plague of drunkenness, by restricting the consumption of alcohol; to preserve the public health by furnishing alcohol which is harmless or rather less harmful than that previously imbibed by consumers; to encourage agriculture by various indirect benefits; and finally to increase the resources of the treasury. All these objects are a trifle contradictory; but legislation, either seriously through the bemuddled brains of the legislators, or apparently by a not infrequent hypocrisy, often in the same law, aims to attain ends opposed to each other.

The most certain result of the experience of Switzerland since the middle of the year 1887, when the governmental monopoly of alcohol began, is that the consumption of that commodity has considerably diminished. Is the diminution real, or only apparent by reason of illegal distillation? It is probable that it is partly real and partly apparent. The high price of alcohol has restricted, in a certain measure, the consumption, and, on the other hand, the illegal distillation has increased. The Confederation, however, does not sell its alcohol at a high price, but sells at a less price in fact than the mere duty on it in the generality of French towns, although at a higher price than it was sold for before the monopoly.

According to the report of the Swiss administration of alcohol, the consumption of spirituous liquors of all kinds in that country was:

In 1885, before the monopoly, about seven and a half quarts to each person, and in 1888, after the monopoly, about five ²/₁₀₀ quarts, being a reduction of 25 per cent.

In December, 1886, it was estimated that the net annual value of the articles to be produced by the monopoly would be \$1,764,000. In 1887-88, however, the net annual value of the manufacture—and, doubtless, the government manufactured all

it could sell—was but \$991,568. Thus the amount manufactured had fallen off 45 per cent. In 1889 the amount manufactured very slightly increased, and in 1890 there was no increase at all.

The report of the Swiss administration recognizes, without hesitation, that the financial results of the monopoly have not been encouraging. The report, however, dwells on the beneficial, moral, and hygienic results, which seem to me—the hygienic results especially—problematical. The administration also admits that numerous complaints have been addressed to it in regard to the quality of the alcohol produced.

I have not the slightest intention of blaming the Swiss administration, nor do I wish to discourage the trial of such an experiment elsewhere. For my own part, if I may be allowed to express my opinion, I do not think the example of our neighbors, from any point of view, moral, hygienic, economic, or financial, is encouraging.

DEDUCTIONS FROM THE CENSUS OF GERMANY.

DR. PAUL LIPPERT.

Vom Fels zum Meer, Stuttgart, June.

THE preliminary results of the census of the German Empire taken on Dec. 1, 1890, make the total population 49,420,842 persons, of whom 29,957,302 are Prussians. The increase since 1885 has been 2,565,138. The increase has not been even in different parts of the country, and the inequality is especially noticeable in the rapid growth of cities. Whereas, in 1871, Germany had eight cities of more than 100,000 inhabitants, in 1890 there were twenty-six. Chief of these is the capital of the Empire, with a population of 1,579,244; Munich comes next, with 348,317; then Breslau, with 335,174; fourth is Hamburg, with 323,739; and the fifth is Leipzig, with 293,525. If the suburbs are included, Hamburg, with 570,534, takes the second and Leipzig, with 355,485, the third place. Berlin has increased by 3.65 per cent. and the twenty-five other cities with more than 100,000 inhabitants by 2.83 per cent. since 1885. Rümelin's expression "Large cities are the bony framework of the social body" may be offset with Bismarck's winged word: "All great cities should be wiped from the face of the earth." The ex-Chancellor of the Empire had in mind the breeding places of the revolution-bacillus, and the ex-Chancellor of the University of Tübingen referred to the concentration of intellectual and industrial activity.

The phrase of the Emperor Wilhelm in his birthday greeting to the Postmaster-General, Dr. von Stephan, "the world at the close of the nineteenth century stands under the sign of communications," happily characterizes the restless rush of our modern life. The development of means of communication has been of great service to industry and agriculture; but it has also given rise to a competition that strikes down the economically weak in the battle for existence, or delivers them over to social discontent. There is still room for everybody in the world; yet where room for the comfortable existence of the economically strong expands, the chance grows smaller for the weak elements to win the most necessary conditions of existence. A natural consequence is the continued depopulation of districts where the soil is poor, or wages are low, or the conditions of credit unfavorable, driving agricultural laborers and small farmers into the industrial towns or across the ocean. Whereas the urban population of the Empire in 1871, was 36.1 per cent of the total; in 1885, the proportion had risen to 43.7 per cent.; and in 1891, it was 47.8 per cent.

The thickly peopled districts, as is well known, lose very much less by emigration proportionately than the least populous. East Prussia which has always been remarkable for the excess of births over deaths, has suffered most of all. The emigration from Prussia in the period 1886-90 was full 2,000,000, and nearly all of these were swallowed by that modern Minotaur—transmarine emigration. In the year 1890 alone, 97,700 Germans, inclusive of those who shipped at French ports, wandered away

from the Fatherland, and of these America got 85,112, or 92.32 per cent. of all the Europe-weary. The total German emigration for the last census period, in round numbers 5,000,000, falls considerably below the 8,600,000 who crossed the ocean during the preceding lustrum; and yet it represents a loss of fighting material equal to two army corps, for the emigrants belong to the most productive classes; and to this must be added the loss of capital and of productive and tax-paying capabilities, equivalent to not less than 3,300,000,000 marks, according to the estimates of Kapp and Hübbe-Schleiden. The steerage passengers that crowd the Great American lines are seldom entirely without means, for the emigration fever spares the elements in the population that are economically the weakest, since the cost of the passage would, as a general thing, use up all their possessions. These step-children of the social system are subject also to the nomadic impulse to a certain extent. About 75,000 journey every spring from East and West Prussia and Silesia to the highly cultivated agricultural districts of Saxony and the Duchy of Anhalt; 13,000 cross annually from Southern Oldenburg into Holland; and 12,000 laborers from Lippe scatter in search of work even as far as Sweden and the South of Russia. All return with their savings to their Penates in the autumn. The pampered children of fortune travel occasionally to America and other parts of the world, but only for their pleasure or recreation, as summer tourists or globe-trotters.

Rich people do not emigrate, they immigrate. Hence the number of millionaires in Germany is constantly increasing. An examination of the classified income-tax lists shows that in 1869 there were 67 persons with assessed incomes of from 48,000 to 5,000,000 marks, whereas in the fiscal year, 1889-90 the number was 2,348; and a similar increase is noted in incomes ranging from 32,400 to 48,000 marks, the numbers rising from 241 to 2,152. Over against these 4,500 representatives of opulence place the 23,221,983 persons who in 1889-90 were exempt from all taxation, and we stand face to face with the fact, too clearly illustrated by the rapid depopulation of the rural districts and the small towns, of an economically unhealthy growth of large fortunes and a progressive impoverishment of the middle classes, especially the artisans and small manufacturers.

TURKEY AND THE JEWS.

"Terjiman I Hakikat," Constantinople, June, 1891.

PRAISE God we have at last a word concerning the Jews which accords with the demands of civilization. This word comes from the lips of the Marquis de Rudini, whose peaceful policy we have not ceased to praise ever since he became Prime Minister of Italy. Having been asked whether he intended to oppose the oppressive policy toward Jews adopted in some parts of Europe, he replied that he could not interfere in the internal affairs of other nations. But he added that on a proper occasion he would certainly use his influence on the side of religious liberty.

The answer is justly and also shrewdly devised. For anti-Semitic zealots, at a loss to justify their ardor, ascribe it not to religious feeling, but to the injury caused to the public interest by the control of trade and finance by the Jews.

It is true that every nation's men of business must look after their own interests. Yet the gains of trade are fairly subject to general competition, and if in this competition it is impossible to conquer the Jews, the shame of the defeat is only increased by a hate which seeks to wipe out of existence a helpless people. In fact we detect religious zeal in all the anti-Semitic writings. The most curious feature of the case is that this religious hostility to the Jews is most evident in countries ruled by the Roman Catholics and the Orthodox (Greek) Church, while in pious Protestant countries it is much more moderate.

It is now announced that a large number of Jews have been forced to appeal to Turkey and Persia, begging to be assigned a place of refuge. Europe pretends to have attained the very highest point of civilization. While it is at this stage of development, a body, greater or less in number, of its own native-born children are forced, because they are of a different religious faith, to seek refuge in Turkey and Persia! The whereabouts of true civilization and justice appear revealed in the most astounding manner by this fact!

EDUCATION, LITERATURE, ART.

PIERRE LOTI.

RENÉ DOUMIC.

Le Correspondant, Paris, June 10.

IT is well for the Academy to recall from time to time that it is a company of authors. In electing M. Pierre Loti, it did not wish to honor the naval officer, since it already had among its members an Admiral. It desired, in the place of one dead romance-writer, to put one who is in the first rank of living romance-writers. I applaud the choice of the Academy. Nevertheless it cannot fail to be amusing to hear the eulogy of Octave Feuillet, the worldly, aristocratic novelist, pronounced by the writer who most despises our modern civilization.

Loti as a little boy was pure and dreamy, brought up in the sweet peace of his family. He was not born in Brittany, as many suppose, but much farther south, in the old province of Saintonge. He knew nothing about Brittany until he was partly grown; but he loved it all the same, and it became his second and adopted country. Grandmothers, aunts, great-aunts, a sister and a brother both much older than he, combined with his father and mother in trying to spoil Loti. Their efforts, however, were in vain. He was good, obedient, timid, reserved, always polite with his little manners. He belonged to a very rigid Protestant family, and had pious inclinations. When he was about eight years old he declared that he would be a clergyman. Sweet, not noisy, he played with little girls only, and was himself almost a little girl.

As time went on, however, traits which he had inherited from generations of ancestors who had followed the sea developed themselves. He manifested an instinctive desire to seek adventures about the world. He had seen his elder brother depart for distant oceans, and had followed him in imagination even as far as Tahiti, that delicious island. He determined to go to sea, and the entreaties of his family failed to change his resolution. Before he was thirty years old he had been in the five parts of the globe, done all sorts of foolish things in all sorts of countries, and had his skin broiled by winds and suns.

This life reversed all Loti's early ideas. In his first book, *Aziyadé*, he made his profession of faith. It was a profession of complete disenchantment expressed in the language of absolute cynicism. "Time and debauchery are the two great remedies; the heart grows numb at length and then it suffers no more. . . . There is no God, no morality. Nothing exists which we have been taught to respect. A life passes, in which it is logical to ask for as much enjoyment as possible, while waiting for its horrible end, which is death. The true miseries are maladies, ugliness, and old age; neither you nor I have these miseries yet; we can still have a crowd of mistresses and enjoy life. . . . I am going to open my heart to you and make my confession of faith: The rule of my conduct is to always do that which pleases me, in spite of all morality, of all social conventionality. I do not believe in anything or anybody, I do not love anything or anybody. I have neither faith nor hope."

There may be some bravado and charlatanism in these expressions, but they declare, I think, the real ideas of Loti. He believes in nothing outside of present realities. All that he asks of life is to procure for him the greatest possible amount of material enjoyment. He never tires of manifesting his disdain for the trade of men of letters and for letters themselves. He tells us that since he has known anything he has always had an invincible disgust for printed things—an odd feeling in a man who makes books.

Loti's works, made up almost entirely of personal recollections, are romances in which he puts himself on the scene. The only personages met with in these romances and which there stand for all humanity, are simple-minded beings, over-

flowing with physical life, strangers to all labor or thought; sailors whose debaucheries in revenge for their long continuance on board ship, he narrates at length; vagabonds, and a series of great devils of savages, African or Polynesian. Loti likes them because they are handsome and strong, and because they are capable of absolute and spontaneous devotion, like dogs. His women approach even nearer to primitive humanity than his men, if that be possible; they are children, little slaves, little savages. *Aziyadé* is a Circassian slave that a rich old man of Constantinople has bought for his harem; to dress her hair, to plait her long locks, to dye her nails with orange rouge are her only occupations. *Pasquala Ivanovich* watches goats in the mountains of Montenegro. *Rarahu* knows only how to bathe in her brook of Apiré and to twine together crowns of flowers. With such women it is easy to guess what a love story is which contains them. The senses only are engaged.

Does Loti paint foreign manners exactly? It has been denied. The question, however, is an idle one, since he is neither an historian, nor a geographer, nor an anthropologist. He is a poet; and he uses the personal recollections which he has brought back from his rambles about the world, only to make frames appropriate to his dreams.

Loti is not only a poet, he is a naturalist. He worships Nature, in the sense in which the ancients understood that word; creative Nature, the source of all life and everything living, the eternal Isis of which Lucretius sang. It is towards her he has been attracted from his childhood, by a sort of unconscious pantheism. He has seen her in all parts of the globe; he has got possession of her; he has put her in his books, being one of those who have the gift of painting things with words and of composing pictures, the magic of which is not equalled by the pictures of painters. In his descriptions, in fact, he does not confine himself to reproducing with all possible clearness the details of objects; but he excels in portraying the impression of the whole, in releasing from its surroundings, so to speak, the soul of a country.

Does he take us to Tahiti, that charming island? By the images that he places before our eyes, he gives us the impression of a paradisaical nature, a land of eternal spring, neither too cold nor too warm, odorous, where the trees have no perfidious shade, where the plants have no dangerous juices, where the beasts are harmless, where men without wants know nothing about labor, where life flows on indolent and charmed by a dream of pleasure. To us, lulled to sleep by the music of his phrases, surrounded by the seductions of harmonious words, it appears that we have been transported elsewhere, under other skies, and have escaped from the oppression of the too narrow horizon which bounds our life.

Loti continues among us the tradition of exotic literature. He owes much to Bernardin de Saint-Pierre and to Chateaubriand. It matters little whether he has read them or not. It is not by books alone that the action of great writers is propagated. We must, however, go still further back, even to the father of all the imaginative and disenchanted writers of this century to find his prototype. The return that Loti tries to bring about to "the primitive sentiments of man" is nothing but a variation of that dream of a "state of nature" which haunted Rousseau.

THE TEACHER'S RELATION TO THE STATE.—W. J. Robertson, of St. Catharines, says in the *Canada Educational Monthly* that it is the duty of the teacher to teach politics as the best teachers of Greece and Rome taught it; as the great men of England have taught and do teach it—not in the narrow sense implied by party warfare, but in the broad sense of what is best for the State and for the individual as an element of the State. There is need for a practical reformation in our political life and its standards. From homes where morals are per chance low and opportunities few, the children come to school, and so under influences which may determine their future careers, and through them may mould the character of the community they will ere long form. Our duty to the State as teachers, requires a daily effort to build up a noble, strong, brave nation upon foundations of truth and righteousness.

THE LITERATI IN CHINA.

GENERAL TCHENG-KI-TONG.

Asiatic Quarterly Review, Calcutta, April to June.

IT is by no means uncommon to hear our Mandarin class, or "literati," spoken of as an all-powerful caste, in full possession of the country, and governing, according to its own good pleasure, other castes that yield a passive obedience to it, without any intelligence, and, above all, without any influence.

Nothing can be more unjust to our "literati" than to describe them thus, for they are far from constituting a class separated from the rest of the nation. The "literati," in fact, are not recruited specially from among any certain number of families, for which are reserved the special appointments of administration and government. Favor has nothing whatever to do with it. The selection, on the contrary, is a most severe one, taking in the entire Chinese territory, and drawing out from the whole mass of the Chinese people the most capable individuals, to form of them the members of the corps of instructors and of the functionaries of the State. It is the examinations, open to all, which establish this selection.

Neither birth nor fortune confer the claim to aspire to the title of a "literate." Nothing but the capacity of the individual can cause him to be admitted. There is no such thing, therefore, as "class" in this "*personnel*," which is constantly drawn from the inexhaustible reserve of our hundreds of millions of human beings, and which renews itself every year by new comers, recruited without distinction from all the social strata of the country.

This popular origin has, moreover, in our eyes an enormous advantage. By the infusion constantly of fresh blood, our administration is always being rejuvenated, remains by that alone in permanent contract with the people, and can neither ignore nor forget the wants and aspirations of the governed.

With us, the son of a shop-keeper, of a mechanic, or of a laboring man can become a "literate" on the same conditions as the son of a "literate." The young man whose father modestly cultivates his patch of rice in some distant province, comes to Peking in order to pass his last examinations. If he succeeds, he becomes at once, by this fact alone, one of the first of the class of "literate," and henceforth the highest appointments in the State await him. No "literate" will ever look upon, nor will he try to look upon, shop-keepers, artisans, or field laborers as belonging to a class less honorable than his own. Such an order of ideas would be perfectly strange to us, and I congratulate my country upon the fact.

Instruction is not compulsory in China; nevertheless it is very rare to meet with an illiterate person. Our elementary instruction is, in fact, much more extensive than in Europe, the result of the greater difficulties attached to the learning of our writing, and to the multiplicity of our ideographic characters, acquaintance with which makes necessary long and careful application.

As soon as a child is old enough to receive instruction, it is sent to some school, kept in a modest room, by a "literate" who, having acquired a very complete education, has not yet been successful in passing the examinations. Here the little boy learns to read, to trace his letters, to understand and to retain sundry precepts taken from our classics. By and by the pupil attacks literature, familiarizes himself with poetry, and, anon, with history. Simultaneously he begins to learn drawing and painting in water-colors. He has to store his memory with a considerable number of literary extracts, and so to acquire gradually the style of our great writers.

All this work has taken some years to get through, and the student prepares for his first examination, which corresponds to your bachelor's degree. Those who pass this, prepare for the second examination, and then for the third or doctor's degree. Successive eliminations reduce the candidates for the last degree to a very small number. At this examination,

which is held every third year in the capital, out of ten thousand candidates, not more than two hundred succeed in passing.

The studies of those examined have included, besides history and general literature, our practical philosophy, which is, in one word, the theory of the art of governing. Until very lately the sciences have found but little room among these studies; but during the last thirty years we have made the necessary efforts in this direction, so that our *special* schools, combined with the missions of students sent abroad, suffice to bring us up to the level of our requirements.

Our ancient national programme perfectly fulfills the object for which we intended it. In effect, this programme develops, in the highest degree, public and private morality. It inculcates upon us, with the worship of the family and respect for our parents, the love of our neighbor and the desire to be happy through the happiness of all.

We need not be moved by the reproach, which is sometimes made, of living in the past. If our "past" had been retrograde, I could understand the reproach. On the contrary, however, this remote past has bequeathed to us a doctrine of incessant progress, admirably suited to our natural genius. It has taught us that the family should always keep the happiness of all its members in view, that each individual should interest himself in the lot of all his fellow human beings—in a word, that the supreme object of Government is the happiness of the people.

THE FIRST STEPS IN KNOWLEDGE.

AHMED MITHAD EFFENDI.

"*Terjiman I Hakikat*," Constantinople, May, 1891.

I.

A THOUGHTFUL friend points out to us that the new system of class-books everywhere introduced makes reading and writing more easy for our children, but that they fail to give any really practical knowledge. This is not the exaggeration which it seems. A ten-year-old boy will hesitate in answering questions concerning the days of the week or the months of the year; he can do nothing toward explaining the number of the seasons, or their characteristics, and he is unable even to tell the time of day by looking at a clock. The writer has a son 11 years old, who is fifteenth in a class of 150 in the preparatory school for the military academy. He is well on in Arabic, Persian, and French; but he cannot tell the relation of paras to piasters, nor of piasters to pounds, nor has he any idea how many quarters there are in one of these coins. Yet he can do the four primary operations of arithmetic. He can recite his catechism very well, but has not an idea from it touching the character of the Prophet. It is his belief that what he studies is made to be studied, not to be understood. If you dictate to him, he will write correctly. But when he writes by himself, he blunders in spelling. It is his impression that the rules of spelling apply when a man tells him what to write, not when he writes by himself. He is not stupid, for somehow he has seven or eight studies at once, with Arabic, French, and arithmetic among the number. The trouble is that he had no general information before beginning to study books. If he could have first learned to understand things by object-lessons, they would not seem so like strangers to him when he meets them in his books.

This boy of 11 has absolutely no ideas concerning the sun. He has never noticed it. He does not know that there is east and west, nor that the sun rises on one side, passes over his head every day, and sets on the other side. Other plain everyday facts are equally unknown to him.

Let something be done in the way of experiment at teaching children with toys made like familiar objects. If some one of the private schools in the city would try this method of teaching, and would let its achievements be known, there would be

no limit to its renown. There is no need of expensive equipment. All that is wanted is a wide-awake teacher to talk with his pupils about a lot of toy models before they begin to learn to read.

II.

A friend, on reading the above, said: "How were you taught? I want my children taught in that way." He means to say that it is all nonsense; that any attempt to teach children knowledge by means of playthings will remain child's play to the end.

As to the way in which I was taught, it is difficult of analysis. I went to a district school and got an idea of reading and writing, then to a higher school to learn more of reading and writing and to learn a little Arabic, and Persian, and arithmetic and geography. Next I went to the Mosque college to learn Arabic; and a private tutor taught me Persian. A foreign school gave me the rudiments of science and private tutors, again, taught me something of the rules of exegesis, of traditional dogmas, and of law. So much I can remember. But now at fifty, I am still constantly busy trying to make up for the lacks of my early education. Probably my boy of eleven knows more than I did at that age; I am quite willing to admit that he does; but we should not compare our children with ourselves, but with the requirements of their time. In this day, to have little general knowledge is the same as being totally untaught. To wish our children taught as we were taught, is to shut our eyes to progress. I had to commit to memory Persian and Arabic dictionaries arranged in rhyme, and when I had finished I really supposed that their object was to teach good morals!

A child can be taught all useful knowledge by putting it in a form that will interest him. An Armenian child of six or eight, living in a Greek district of this city will speak the three languages, Armenian, Greek, and Turkish, and will know a number of games, besides many harmful things. He knows the names of the kinds of candy and of fruits. But ask him to tell the names of wheat, rye, barley, oats, or millet, and he cannot do it any more than a village boy can tell what a watch is, or a pair of French gaiters, or a horse-car. Each knows what he has seen and has been interested in. Coming back to my own education; when I was seventeen, I did not know that the threshing-floor sledge has flints on its under side and I was fairly frightened by its appearance when first I saw it. In the same way many adults in this city know nothing of the manner in which is made the cheese and the *yoghourt* which they eat every day.

Now, every child grows up without an idea save of his plays; so when put into his books he finds there a great multitude of things of which he has never heard. He is too amazed and confused to receive any of them kindly. My boy, as I said, has never formed a notion about the sun. It is a task to get him to notice that it seems to have a regular daily motion. What a task it will be to make him understand that it is the centre of the Universe and that the planets revolve around it. But our children must know these things. They are to take our places and that in a progressive age. Do not ask whether they are being educated as we were educated, but whether they are being educated as they need to be.

When I was a boy, if my father called me to come to him I was afraid to go. I knew perfectly well that he never sent for me except when my mother had told him of my doings during the day, and that he would flog me. But in the present age fathers have to call their children about them at evening, in order to entertain them with chat on subjects suited to awaken their minds. This system of training is entirely different from the system by which I was trained. If these healthful ideas could be taught to children by skilled teachers in regular schools, the advantage of the change would be clear. In whatever family there is talk of fairies, and spooks, and bogeys, the children will be subject to convulsions, and epilepsy, and

rickets, besides mental diseases. This is an evident fact. But on the other hand, where the simple side of art and science is familiarly taught the children, there is health of body and mind.

The advantage of such a system of primary teaching is shown by the history of our instruction in reading and writing. Formerly a child would attend a district school for years without being able to learn his letters. Now, with the improved method of instruction, a child learns his letters in a few months, and learns to read in a year or two. As great will be the change in the matter of acquiring general information, if the plan proposed be tried. No one can imagine that it will do harm to try it, even if it does not do all the good which we claim for it.

THE PLOT OF "AS YOU LIKE IT."

C. A. WURTZBURG.

Poet-Lore, Philadelphia, July.

THIS drama affords a fine example of two leading characteristics of Shakespeare's work—the many-sidedness of his intellect and the symmetry of his art work.

The plot is borrowed from Thomas Lodge's novel "Rosalynde," a euphuistic love story, of which the distinguishing characteristic is excessive ornament. But apart from its affectations, "Rosalynde" is a story full of clear moral truth and wholesome sentiment, like a beautiful woman in a fantastic dress; and, having studied it, it is pleasant to believe that Shakespeare loved it, as indeed we may gather from his borrowing it and the manner in which he handled it.

His power as a dramatic artist is shown in his skillful use of the material at hand. With unerring judgment he decides what is good for his purposes, rejects what is superfluous, alters what does not exactly fit, finally creates what is still lacking and gives to the world entirely new characters, with the result of a rounded and complete whole—a perfect comedy, as original and deeply true in thought as it is light and graceful on the surface.

Story and drama are sister arts, having much in common yet much that is different. The drama in its action needs a selection of incidents; the fulness and freedom of the story is thus limited in several ways. Mechanical difficulties preclude incessant changes of scene, nor indeed can all kinds of scenes be represented on the stage, as they can be by the storyteller's pen. Action in the drama can never go back: all that has gone before must be implied; whereas in story-telling one of the finest effects is obtained by first laying before the reader a striking situation, and, having thus secured his interest, working back to account for the situation before the action proceeds. And again, every character and every incident must explain itself in the drama; whereas, in the story there is always the narrator to comment upon or explain everything.

In "Rosalynde" the tendency to moralize, of which the heaviness is redeemed by Lodge's dainty and poetic fancy, gives a fine example of Shakespeare's gift for assimilating that which is of worth, while rejecting what is foreign to his design. "As You Like It" is remarkably free from reflections, from moralizing that is in any way forced; yet, reading the play side by side with the story, we find every suggestion of moral truth and every beautiful imagination in the one retained in the other. The master worker separates each grain of fine gold and each jewel from what is of less value, and works them up among his own finer gold and gems.

The incidents of the early part of the story are either omitted from the drama altogether or worked out in an altered form by the relation of the players in the first act. All the harsher tones are concentrated in this first act, that nothing discordant may mar the soft effects of love and nature, gradually blending into one melody at the last. The first act deals with the wrongs done to Orlando, to the banished Duke, to Rosalind, and accounts for the appearance eventually of all the

principal characters in the forest. But the tones of suffering and evil are kept as unobtrusive as possible; tragic details, in place in the story, are here omitted or softened down. Relieving this strain of wrong and evil passions, we have the sudden idyllic love of Rosalind and Orlando, and the ideal friendship of the two cousins.

The form of the plot is that known technically as *complication and resolution*. Regarding the four love stories as together constituting the main interest of the play, we find the complication caused by one obstruction; and that this obstruction being removed, the complication is completely resolved. This obstruction is Rosalind's disguise. The first act fitly ends with announcement of the disguise; the introduction comes to an end because the train of complication is laid. For similar reason the play comes to an end when the disguise is dropped, for that is the final bringing about of resolution.

SCIENCE AND PHILOSOPHY.

WHAT IS ELECTRICITY?

NIKOLA TESLA.

Electrical Review, New York, July 11.

OF all the forms of nature's all-pervading energy, which, ever changing and ever moving, like a soul animates the inert universe, those of electricity and magnetism are perhaps the most fascinating. The effects of gravitation, of heat, and light we observe daily, and soon we get accustomed to them, and soon they lose for us the character of the marvelous and wonderful; but electricity and magnetism, with their singular relationship, with their seemingly dual character, unique among the forces in nature, with their phenomena of attractions, repulsions, and rotations, stimulate and excite the mind to thought and research. We are now confident that electric and magnetic phenomena are attributable to ether; and we are, perhaps, justified in saying that the effects of static electricity are effects of ether under strain, and those of dynamic electricity and electro-magnetism effects of ether in motion. But this still leaves the question, as to what electricity and magnetism are, unanswered. First, we naturally inquire, is there such a thing as electricity? In interpreting electric phenomena, we may speak of electricity or of an electric condition, state, or effect. If we speak of electric effects, we must distinguish two effects opposite in character, and neutralizing each other. In a medium of the properties of ether we cannot exert a strain or produce a displacement or motion of any kind without causing in the surrounding medium an equivalent and opposite effect. But if we speak of electricity, meaning a thing, we must, I think, abandon the idea of two electricities. For how can we imagine that there should be two things, equivalent in amount, alike in their properties, but of opposite character, both clinging to matter, both attracting and completely neutralizing each other? If there is such a thing as electricity, there can be only one such thing, and excess and want of that one thing, possibly, though more probably its condition, determines the positive and negative character. Still, in spite of this, the theory of the two electricities is generally accepted, as it apparently explains electric phenomena in a more satisfactory manner. But a theory which explains better the facts is not necessarily true.

What, of all things, the existence of which we know, have we the best reason to call electricity? We know that it acts like an incompressible fluid; that there must be a constant quantity of it in nature; that it can be neither produced nor destroyed; and that electric and ether phenomena are identical. The idea at once suggests itself, therefore, that electricity might be ether. I must confess that I cannot believe in two electricities, much less in a doubly constituted ether. Electricity cannot be called ether in the broad sense of the term;

but nothing would seem to stand in the way of calling electricity ether associated with matter—bound ether; or, in other words, that the so-called static charge of the molecule is ether associated in some way with the molecule. Looking at it in that light, we would be justified in saying that electricity is concerned in all molecular action. Now, precisely what the ether surrounding the molecules is, wherein it differs from ether in general, can only be conjectured. It cannot differ in density, ether being incompressible; it must, therefore, be under some strain or in motion, and the latter is the more probable. To understand its functions it would be necessary to have an exact idea of the physical construction of matter.

But of all the views of nature the one which assumes one matter and one force, and a perfect uniformity throughout, is the most scientific and the most likely to be true. An infinitesimal world, with the molecules and their atoms spinning and moving in orbits in much the same manner as celestial bodies, carrying with them ether, which is probably spinning with them—in other words, carrying with them static charges—seems to my mind the most probable view; one which in a plausible manner accounts for most of the phenomena observed. The spinning of the molecules and their ether sets up ether tensions or electrostatic strains; the equalization of ether tensions sets up ether motions or electric currents, and the orbital movements produce the effects of electro and permanent magnetism. About fifteen years ago Professor Rowland demonstrated a most interesting and important fact, namely, that a static charge carried around produces the effects of an electric current. We can conceive lines or tubes of force which physically exist, being formed of rows of directed moving molecules; we can see that these lines must be closed; that they must tend to shorten and expand, etc. It likewise explains in a reasonable way the most puzzling phenomenon of all, permanent magnetism, and, in general, has all the beauties of the Ampère theory without possessing the vital defect of the same, namely, the assumption of molecular currents. Without enlarging further upon the subject I would say that I look upon all electrostatic current and magnetic phenomena as being due to electrostatic molecular forces.

We are whirling through the endless space with inconceivable speed; all around us everything is spinning, everything is moving, everywhere is energy. There must be some way of availing ourselves of this energy more directly. Then, with the light obtained from the medium, with the power derived from it, with every form of energy obtained without effort, from the store forever inexhaustible, humanity will advance with giant strides. The mere contemplation of these magnificent possibilities expands our minds, strengthens our hopes, and fills our hearts with supreme delight.

THE SIMIAN TONGUE.

PROFESSOR R. L. GARNER.

The New Review, London, June.

I HAVE long believed that each sound uttered by an animal had a meaning which any other animal of the same kind could interpret at once. I regarded the task of learning the monkey tongue as very much the same as learning that of a strange race of mankind—more difficult in the degree of its inferiority, but less in volume. Year by year, as new ideas were revealed to me, I began to realize how great a task was mine. One difficulty was to utter the sounds I heard; another was to recall them; and yet another was to translate them. At last came a revelation. I went to Washington, and proposed to Dr. Frank Baker, Director of the National Zoölogical Garden, the novel experiment of acting as interpreter between two monkeys. The plan was quite simple. We placed in separate rooms two monkeys that had been caged together. A phonograph recorded a few sounds uttered by the female. When the

male heard these sounds repeated, his surprise and perplexity were evident. He traced the sounds to the horn from which they came; he thrust his hand into the horn, withdrew it, and peeped into the horn again and again. Having satisfied myself that he recognized the sounds as those of his mate, I proceeded to record some of his sounds, but my success was not fully up to my hopes; yet I secured from him enough to win the attention of his mate, and elicit from her some signs of recognition. And thus, for the first time in the history of philology, the Simian tongue was reduced to record. I also secured phonographic records in the Chicago Zoölogical Garden, and in the Cincinnati Garden. I studied these, repeating them over and over, until I became quite familiar with the sounds, and improved my utterance of them. Some weeks later I returned to Cincinnati and Chicago, and tried my skill as a linguist with a success far beyond my wildest hopes.

I stood by a cage containing a capuchin monkey. I uttered the word, or sound, which I had translated "milk." On repeating it three or four times, he answered me very distinctly with the same word, and then turned to a small pan kept in the cage for him to drink from. I repeated the word again, and he placed the pan near the front of the cage, and uttered the word. I gave him some milk, which he drank with great zest; then he held up the pan, and repeated the sound some three or four times. I was quite sure he used the same sound each time he wanted milk.

I now held a banana in front of the cage, and he at once gave the word which I had translated "to eat." Repeated tests proved to me that he used the same word for apple, carrot, bread, and banana, hence I concluded that it meant "food," or "hunger," as also "to eat." From other experiments I was convinced that the word I had translated "milk" must also mean "water," and also "drink," and probably "thirst." I have never seen a capuchin monkey that did not use these two words. The sounds are very soft and quite flute-like; very difficult to imitate, and impossible to write. They are purely vocal, except faint traces of "h" or "wh" as in the word "who"; a very feeble "w"; and here and there a slight guttural "ch."

To imitate the word which I interpret "food," fix the mouth as if to whistle; draw the tongue far back and try to utter the "who" by blowing. The phonics appear to me to be "wh-u-w," with the consonant elements so faint as to be almost imaginary.

In music the tone is F sharp,  and this seems to be the

vocal pitch of the species, though they have a wide range of voice. The sound I have translated "drink" or thirst is nearly uttered by relaxing and parting the lips, and placing the tongue as it is found in ending the German word "ich," and then trying to utter "ch-e-u-w," making the "ch" like "k" blending the "e" and "u" like slurred tones in music, and suppressing the "w." The consonant elements can barely be detected, and the tone is about an octave higher than that used for "food."

My work has been confined chiefly to the capuchin monkey, because he seems to have one of the best defined languages of any of his genus. I have recorded one sound made by the sooty monkey; three by a mandril; five by a white-faced sapajou; and a few of less value. But from the best proofs I have found, I have arrived, as I believe, at some strange facts:

1. The simian tongue has about eight or nine sounds, which may be changed by modulation into three or four times that number.

2. They seem to be half-way between a whistle and a pure vocal sound, and have a range of four octaves, and, so far as I have tried, they all chord with F sharp.

3. The sound used most is very much like "u"—"oo," in "shoot."

The next one something like "e" in "be." So far I find no a, i, or o.

4. Faint traces of consonant sounds can be found in words of low pitch, but they are few and quite feeble.

5. The present state of their speech has been reached by development from a lower form.

6. Each race or kind has its own peculiar tongue, slightly shaded into dialects, and the radical or cardinal sounds do not have the same meanings in all tongues.

7. The words are monosyllabic, ambiguous, and collective, having no negative terms except resentment.

8. The phonic character of their speech is very much the same as that of children in their early efforts to talk, except as regards the pitch.

9. Their language seems to obey the same laws of change and growth as human speech.

10. When caged together one monkey will learn to understand the language of another kind, but does not try to speak it. His replies are in his own vernacular.

11. They use their lips in talking in very much the same way that men do.

12. I think their speech, compared to their physical, mental, and social state, is in about the same relative condition as that of man by the same standard.

13. The more fixed and pronounced the social and gregarious instincts are in any species, the higher the type of its speech.

14. Simians reason from cause to effect, and their reasoning differs from that of man *in degree, but not in kind*.

To reason, they *must think*, and if it be true that *man cannot think without words*, it must be true of monkeys: hence, they must formulate those thoughts into words.

15. Words are the audible, and signs the visible, expression of thought, and any voluntary sound made by the vocal organs with a constant meaning is a word.

16. The state of their language seems to correspond with their power to think, and to express their thoughts.

I have here given only a few of many trials which I have made to solve the problem of the simian tongue, and while I have gone only a step, I believe that I have found a clue to the great secret of speech, and pointed out the way that leads to its solution.

WARDERS OF THE BLOOD.

WILLY NOBBE.

Ueber Land und Meer, Stuttgart, June.

OUR body is composed approximately of thirty billion cells, the primary units of life. Not only are they the material particles out of which our organism is built, but they form the foundation for the functions of all our organs. What we commonly call life is nothing else than the sum of the functions of all the cells. The complicated mechanism of the human body exists and is kept in working order only by the intimate coöperation of a number of separate living beings far transcending our powers of conception. Yet each infinitesimal being lives in and for its individual self and not for the whole mechanism; it breathes, takes sustenance to itself, and gets rid of the used-up material. That such a cell is capable of life as a separate individual can be seen in the amoebas, those smallest of animalcules, which consist of nothing more than a mass of protoplasm enclosed in an extremely thin membrane, exactly like the cells of the human organism. An exceedingly interesting variety of these cells is what are called the leucocytes, the "chimney-sweeps of the blood," as a famous living physiologist has characterized them, which were known in the last century, but whose functions we do not entirely understand to this day. These leucocytes, which are of microscopic size, are present in the blood in the form of "white blood corpuscles," in the proportion of one to every three or four hundred red corpuscles. The proportion is entirely different in consumptives or persons suffering from leucocythemia, who harbor in their blood a great excess of the white corpuscles. This, and not, as many suppose, deficiency of blood, is the true

cause of consumption. Leucocytes are found not only in the blood vessels, but also in the spleen, the liver, and many other organs. The construction of the white blood corpuscles is very simple. They consist of a soft, semi-fluid mass called protoplasm, which contains one or two nuclei, and the whole is surrounded by a fine membrane or cell wall. They are globular in shape and are larger than the red corpuscles, which have neither nucleus nor membrane. Their movements also are different from those of the red corpuscles, which shoot through the middle of the stream of blood, while the white roll along the walls of the blood-vessel. Sometimes three or four are seen close together, and again they are found widely separated. Like the independent animalcules that have been mentioned, the amoebas, the leucocytes are able to change their shape at any time by forming pseudopods. A part of the mass contracts and throws out an irregular process, which in turn buds into a new one or several. These pseudopods serve the amoebas as a means of taking food and of locomotion, and they perform the same offices for the leucocytes. If these come to a narrow blood-vessel, they elongate themselves and thus slip through, to resume afterward their original form. Besides their ability to change their shape, they possess another very remarkable property that shows what an important part they perform in the animal economy and has justly earned for them the name of "nomad cells." This is the power of leaving the blood vessels by breaking through their walls. When a leucocyte wants to migrate—the operation takes place in the finest and smallest of the blood vessels, the capillaries as they are called—it first throws out a kind of a pseudopod, a filament of exceeding fineness, which bores its way through the tissue of the wall. When it reaches the outer side, minute granular particles of protoplasm are sent along the thin appendage, and these collect in a small bunch on the outside of the membrane. This process goes on until the entire leucocyte has passed over to the outer surface of the membrane, whence it pursues its journey into the interior, penetrating the tissues. This faculty, interesting and unique as it is, would not give the leucocytes such physiological importance if it was not supplemented by another equally interesting peculiar property. This consists in their ability to render innocuous any alien substance that has got into the blood-vessels in any way. Whenever a leucocyte comes in contact with such a foreign body it seizes and holds it fast by throwing about it a pseudopod, and then gradually envelops and absorbs it. This is a fact that can be proved by experiment. If we introduce a foreign substance into the blood, for example, fine powdered indigo, we will find that in a comparatively short time, perhaps twenty-four hours, it will disappear entirely from the plasma. The leucocytes have taken it up, loaded themselves with it, as we can see from their altered color, and thus removed it from the blood. They thus cleanse the blood passages, sweep out every kind of refuse, and keep the road always clear for the ceaselessly pulsing vital stream. They will allow no poison as a destroyer of life to gain the mastery in the blood fluid. They will fight with it to the death, and oftentimes their valiant struggle is crowned with splendid success—a human life saved. If the forces of the enemy are stronger than they, still they will never give up the fight till the last of their band has fallen.

PHOTOGRAPHY OF THE HEAVENS.

CAMILLE FLAMMARION.

La Lecture, Paris, June 10.

THE idea of applying photography to the curiosities of the sky was born on the day on which the great discovery of Niepce and Daguerre was disclosed to the public by the memorable communication made by Arago in the session of the Academy of Sciences on the 19th of April, 1839.

The illustrious astronomer, foreseeing at once the different applications of the discovery to astronomical researches, pointed out, among these applications, the possibility of obtain-

ing a good map of the moon, and a complete image of the rays of the solar spectrum. Photographic processes, however, were then too imperfect to obtain satisfactory results.

However, in 1845, Fizeau and Foucault succeeded in making an excellent photograph of the sun, which can be seen admirably engraved in the collected works of Arago. In 1849, William C. Bond, an American astronomer, obtained an excellent daguerreotype of the moon. The eclipse of the sun on the 28th of July, 1851, was photographed by Berkowski, at Koenigsberg, which showed, for the first time, traces of the corona which surrounds it, and of the eruptions from its surface.

In 1857, Mr. Bond obtained a very neat photograph of the double star, Mizar or Zeta, in the Great Bear, as precise in fact as the micrometric measures of it. It was at the Observatory of Harvard College that these first photos of stars were made.

Mr. Warren de La Rue, in England, and Mr. Rutherford, in the United States, between 1857 and 1867, made some magnificent photographs of the moon, which have not yet been surpassed.

It is now proposed to photograph the entire sky, and to this end Rear-Admiral Mouchez brought about an international astrophotographic congress, which met at the Observatory of Paris, in 1887 and 1889, and a third time this year.

It is intended to photograph the entire heavens and to construct, by photography alone, the complete map of the sky as it appears to the eyes of the inhabitants of the earth. Instead of meridian observations, due to a great number of observers, differing much in their mode of estimating the magnitude of stars and in their method of proving positions; in place of multiplied transcriptions, numerous calculations of reduction and observations made through a great number of years, we shall have simply a precise photograph of the heavens, and that not for stars of the ninth magnitude only—the largest magnitude shown on the great map of Argelander, made in 1862—but for stars of the tenth, eleventh, twelfth, thirteenth, and even fourteenth magnitudes.

It is estimated that of stars of the sixth magnitude there are 4,800, and of stars of the fourteenth magnitude 27,000,000. The total of all the stars of the first fourteen magnitudes is estimated at 40,000,000. To catalogue this celestial army, even if it were not a superhuman work, would be impossible, for inevitable errors would slip in among such a number of observations, reductions, and transcriptions.

Years and years would not suffice for the task, and while you were attempting it the stars would alter their position.

Photography, thanks to the perfection arrived at in its methods, does all this work quickly and with the utmost precision. If it were possible to photograph the entire heavens from every spot of earth at once, these forty million stars, with eight thousand glasses, could be photographed in thirteen minutes. Such an instantaneous photograph of the sky would be ideal, but it cannot be made; first, because at any given moment it is night over less than half the surface of the globe; second, because the atmosphere is never perfectly clear; lastly, because the cost of these eight thousand instruments would be very great. So the work has been divided between twenty observatories, and it is thought that in three or four years the whole heavens will be photographed. Contemporary astronomy has given us such glimpses as have never before been had of infinity and eternity, and shown us what infinitesimal creatures we are. We live on one of the smallest of the infinite number of worlds, like silk worms in cocoons. We imagine that we know something, we have even a sentiment of pride, and flatter ourselves that we rule nature. We declare ourselves materialists without knowing the slightest thing about the essence of matter; we declare ourselves spiritualists without knowing the slightest thing about the nature of spirit. Every thinking being must feel a little skeptical as to whether we know anything whatever.

RELIGIOUS.

THE THEOLOGICAL CRISIS.

THE REVEREND CHARLES A. BRIGGS, D.D.

North American Review, New York, July.

TO understand the issues involved in the present theological crisis we must distinguish three things: (1) The doctrine of Holy Scripture; (2) the doctrine of the Creeds; (3) traditional dogma. In the evolution of Christian theology the constant tendency is to overlay Scripture and Creed with tradition. Every reforming movement must strip off the traditional dogmas from the Scriptures. This is the real issue at the present time. There is a rally of dogmatists and traditionalists against those Biblical and historical scholars who are striving to dethrone tradition and put Holy Scripture and the Creeds in their proper position of authority in the Church.

The dogmatists claim that their dogma is in the Creed; if we do not submit to it, we must leave the Church. They insist that their dogma is in the Bible, and if we do not accept it, we must give up the Bible. Biblical scholars and historical students, on the contrary, propose to hold up the Bible as the supreme authority for the Church; to build on the Creeds as the ecclesiastical test of orthodoxy. Traditional dogma in the Presbyterian Church is chiefly the scholastic Calvinism of the seventeenth century of Switzerland and Holland, mingled with elements from British Evangelicalism of the eighteenth century. But alongside of it is an apologetic based upon the Arminianism of Bishop Butler and an ethical philosophy of the nineteenth century. It is this internal strife between Calvinistic dogma, Arminian apologetics, and rationalistic ethics that has brought on the crisis in the Congregational and Presbyterian Churches.

Theological discussion at the present time is, for the most part, above and beyond the lines of denominational distinctions. All Christian theologians are engaged in them, without regard to sect or calling. They centre about three great topics: the first things—Bible, Church, and reason; the last things—the whole field of eschatology; and the central thing—the person and work of Jesus Christ.

The Christian Church is divided into three great parties—Evangelicals, Churchmen, and Rationalists. The Evangelicals make the Bible supreme over Church and reason. The Churchmen make the Church supreme over Bible and reason. The Rationalists make reason supreme. The historian recognizes that men have found God in the Bible, the Church, and the reason. It is evident, therefore, that those who use the three media of communication with God, and use them to the utmost, will be most likely to attain the highest degree of union and communion with God. When I take the position that men have found God in the forms of the reason, I do not deny the Protestant position that Holy Scripture is supreme. I simply affirm that, where Holy Scripture does not work as a means of grace, the Divine Spirit may work now, as He worked before the Bible and the church came into existence.

When I say that multitudes have found God through the Church, I agree with the Reformers in recognizing these as Christians, and I do not deny the supremacy of the Scriptures. It is our contention that each one of the channels of Divine grace should be cleared of obstructions; that each one should be made free and open to the use of man. Then, in our opinion, Holy Scripture will arise in acknowledged superiority over them all.

The chief reason that men do not universally recognize the supremacy of the Holy Scripture is that scholastics and traditionalists have thrust the Scriptures aside, have encased them in speculative dogma, and have used dogmatic theories of the Bible as a wall to fence off earnest, truth-seeking men.

The higher or literary criticism on purely scientific principles determines the integrity, authenticity, literary forms, and credibility of the Scriptures. It works with the same rules that

are used in every other department of the world's literature. These principles are: (1) The writing must be in accordance with its supposed historic position as to time, place, and circumstances; (2) differences of style imply differences of experience and age of the same author, or, when sufficiently great, differences of author and period of composition; (3) differences of opinion and conception imply differences of author when these are sufficiently great, and also differences of period of compositions; (4) citations show the dependence of author upon author, or authors, cited; (5) positive testimony; (6) the argument from silence. The application of these rules to the scientific study of the Bible has shown that a large part of the traditions as to authorship, date, style, and integrity has no solid ground.

Higher criticism cuts up the dogmatic theory of the Bible from the roots. If the traditional dogma be correct, higher criticism, for all who accept its conclusions, has destroyed the inspiration of a large part of the Bible. The dogmatists must battle with higher criticism in a life-and-death struggle. They have identified the Bible and Creed with their dogma, and they are risking everything on the issue of their struggle.

The chief struggle is about the question of inerrancy. It is a theory of modern dogmatists. Neither Holy Scripture nor historic Creed makes this claim for the Bible. Biblical criticism finds errors in Holy Scripture in great numbers, but they are in the circumstantial, and not in the essentials. They do not disturb any doctrine; they do not change the faith and life of the Church. It may be regarded as the consensus of Biblical scholars that the Bible is not inerrant; and yet the dogmatists insist that *one* error destroys its inspiration. They risk their whole Bible on one error. Jesus Christ is the pivot of history, the centre of theology, the light and joy of the world. The traditional dogma unfolded the Christ of the Cross and the Atonement wrought thereon, but the Christ of the Throne and the Heavenly Mediation have been neglected. Modern Christology is unfolding the humiliation of Christ, the Kenosis of the Second Person of the Trinity, the Incarnation, the Resurrection, the Second Advent of our Lord. All these phases of Christology are in course of evolution. They cast a flood of light upon the whole field of theology, and are gradually transforming every other doctrine.

American Christianity is backward still in the department of Christology; but ere long it will become the most absorbing, as it ever was the grandest, theme for the Christian Church, and the first things and the last things will be absorbed in the blaze of the glory of the Messiah.

The fruits of this theological crisis can only be great, lasting, and good. The first things, the sources and foundations of Christianity, will be tested, strengthened, and assured.

The last things will cease to frighten weak Christians, and stiffen brave men into the rejection of such childish conceptions of the universe as prevail in the traditional dogma.

Jesus Christ, in His unique personality, in the wonders of His theanthropic nature, in the comprehension of His work of Redemption, will present Himself to the consciousness of men as their loving Master and gracious Sovereign, whom to love, serve, and adore will be the bliss of living and dying.

OUR LITTLE EIRENICON.

LEONARD WOOLSEY BACON.

New Englander and Yale Review, New Haven, July.

NOTHING will help more to take the acrimony out of the controversy which now vexes the Presbyterian Church, than to scrutinize exactly the main question at issue, and define it with precision.

The main question is on the inerrancy of Sacred Scripture. Carefully defined it is this:

The Princeton theologians of the present day hold that there once existed certain documents, the exact contents of which

are not now discoverable, which were absolutely free from error of any kind.

Professor Briggs says that he is not sure of it.

Both parties are agreed that there is not any existing edition or translation of the Scriptures, nor any manuscript copy of them in the original languages, of which infallibility is to be asserted. The defense of the Princeton divines of their favorite thesis of the absolute inerrancy of Holy Scripture is vested, in the last resort, on the absolute impossibility of determining exactly and beyond question what Holy Scripture originally was and what it meant. For "the Church has asserted absolute infallibility only of the original autograph copies of the Scriptures as they came from the hands of their inspired writers." [Dr. A. A. Hodge, *Outlines of Theology*, Ed. 1878, p. 73.] Armed with this qualification, the ingenious young Timothies under training at Princeton for the Holy War, are encouraged to plant themselves boldly on the doctrine of the infallibility of the Scriptures, and bid defiance to the armies of the aliens. In answer to profane allegations of "discrepancy" in the sacred text, they are instructed to hurl into the teeth of the cavalier the question: "How do you know it was in the original autograph?" and demand the proof—which it is safe to say a mortal cannot give; and if, after such a knock-down as this, the uncircumcised Philistine shall come staggering up to renew the fight, they must be ready and let him have the next right on the forehead: "How do you know that that is what it means?" With these two precious principles, the undeterminable uncertainty of the "original autograph" text and the inscrutable obscurity of its meaning—these two smooth stories from the limpid depths of Dr. Hodge's purling *Outlines of Theology*—of what use the cumbrous armor of human learning which is fabricated at such cost at Union Seminary, or Yale, or Andover. We understand now why it is that Colonel Ingersoll always fights shy of Princeton students.

Now to us, whose only advantage in studying the situation is the proverbial advantage which the looker-on has over the player, it does not seem impossible that, by concessions involving no sacrifice of principle, a *modus vivendi* might be arrived at by which Dr. Briggs and his friends should abide peacefully in the same communion with Dr. Patton and Dr. Green.

On the one hand, let the Princeton professors frankly recognize that Dr. Briggs, in common with a multitude of his fellow-Christians, is not wholly blameworthy for knowing less of certain unknown, extinct, and hopelessly irrecoverable ancient autograph manuscripts than his Princeton brethren. Princeton knows, not by evidence (for it is the boast of Princeton theology that the proposition cannot be proved by evidence), but by a certain transcendental *a priori* cognition or clairvoyance, that the manuscripts, which have been lost anywhere from 2000 to 3000 years, if they could be discovered (which, thank heaven, they never can be, or they might play the very mischief with Dr. Hodge's *Outlines*) would be found to contain no discrepancy but what might be accounted for on the ground of their "inherent obscurity." But Dr. Briggs did not graduate at Princeton, and how was it possible for him to know this?

On the other hand, could not Dr. Briggs and his colleagues be induced to desist from pursuing further those studies in textual and higher criticism which tend to dispel the salutary obscurity that rests upon the original Scriptures. The "dangerous tendency" of the teachings of the exegetical department at Union Seminary has notoriously been, for years past, to throw light upon dark and doubtful things in the Scriptures.

Now that it is made clear that the main reliance of the Princeton defenders of the faith is on the inscrutable uncertainty and obscurity of the Scriptures, and that studies which throw light on the dark places of Holy Writ, are sapping the walls of Zion, will not the dear brethren at New York make the necessary *sacrificio dell' intelletto*, and instead of this restless searching of the Scriptures, devote themselves modestly, humbly, and quietly to instructing in the late Dr. Hodge's *Outlines of Theology*?

"THE WORD HAD BREATH."

PROFESSOR W. H. WYNN, PH.D., D.D.

Lutheran Quarterly, Gettysburg, July.

HERE is a book, or a collection of books, which men venerate as the Word of God. It is the Holy Bible. In Christendom it is universally regarded with a feeling of awe. It is sacred. We attach a sanctity to all its history, and prophecy, and poetry, and in it we think we have eternal life. "Higher Criticism" is bringing to light some grave matters affecting the authenticity, integrity, nay, even the veracity, of this old Book, affirming that it is fragmentary, pieced, anachronistic, a mosaic of events and sentiments far apart in point of time, and ascribed to an authorship to which it cannot belong. Here are mistakes in what has been thought to be the unerring Word of God. The Book we imagine to be the product of the direct brooding of the Spirit of God, and therefore lifted above the possibility of mistake, is found to be fallible like other books, and must be brought down from the lofty place it has occupied in our esteem. This implies that there is only a literary difference between the Bible and the Vedas, the Yih-King of the Chinese, the Sutra of the Buddhists, and the Koran of Mahomet. Despite the unavoidable accidents and literary infirmities consequent upon the long years of its gathering—because this Divine Book has a human history—there is in it that which clothes it with supreme and unchallenged authority in all matters spiritual and divine. There is that which gives this Book an infinite preëminence over all other books of like pretensions in the world.

There is a continuous unbroken development of the religion of the Incarnation. The remarkable feature of the inner spiritual contents of this Book, which, in its outer form and habilitment spans the centuries, is the image of the Nazarene. Pointing unerringly to Him Who was to come, or telling of Him after He had come.

What gives superiority and authority and infallibility to these Scriptures, is the unanimity and deep spiritual harmony with which they carry on the religion of the Incarnation to its glorious consummation. It is a fact that Jesus, the Incarnate Deity, may be found in clear outline and vast moral proportions in the Pentateuch, making it immaterial whether Moses wrote those books or not. We hear much nowadays about human reason sitting in judgment on the revelations of this Book. Reason! Reason!—there is no larger word in the whole vocabulary of human speech. It is the crowning faculty of man. For, what is the office of this high faculty? It discovers truth. It discriminates, judges, verifies, ascertains.

Does any one imagine that human reason, having such unrestricted prerogative everywhere else, must subside into dumb and dead acquiescence when the Bible is approached? The Bible is authority, and authority allows of no questioning beyond. When reason draws near to the ineffable glory which breaks from the Word of God, it must put a seal upon its lips, and fall down in the dust in mute adoration. For would it not be presumption beyond all reckoning for reason to set up its authority over the Word of God?

Reason may be subject to a scholarly drill; it may also be subject to a drill of regenerate life. Natural reason is a poor, blundering judge of spiritual truth. The natural *lumen* of reason, with resources of scholarship and critical skill, phenomenal it may be, is but as the light of a candle straggling in the dreary expanses of interminable night. Is there such a thing as enlightened reason determining for itself if such and such a record is the veritable Word of God—now, mark, enlightened reason—discharging a task that natural reason cannot approach?

This inquiry puts us on a great height from which we can look back on all the deepest religious experience of the past, and discover what fundamentally is Christian consciousness, which is the fact of immediate discipleship with our Lord,

simply through the uplifting power of His Word. Christian experience authenticates the Word of God by the discovery that when the soul rests wisely in that Word it is lifted into conscious personal communion with the Master Himself, and in that way it lays hold on eternal life. This is the explicit teaching of our Lord. That is the infallible Word of God, which infallibly puts us into personal communion with the Incarnate Word—"They are they which testify of Me"—"The words which I speak unto you, they are spirit, and they are life." "If ye abide in Me, and My words abide in you"—as if the authenticity of those words could never be called in question, so long as they ministered to the conscious intercommunion of the disciple with his Lord. Nor can they.

"Follow me"—for ages and ages these words, for the great company of the devout, have codified the whole sweep of Bible inspiration and history, and condensed the practical theology of the people as against all obstructing dogma and the learned prattling of the schools. The people have known always that Jesus must be lived in the life, that He must be proved in the everyday sacrament of His rescuing interposition, in His perpetual and prompt overtures to save—and this, while the schools were spinning their subtle theologies into cobwebs and mist, and Rationalists were hurling their heaviest shot against the citadel of the faith. Reason has not been betrayed into long and profitless lingering in fields of purely speculative research. We urge this experimental test of the infallibility of the Word of God now, when the theological atmosphere is more than ordinarily charged with elements threatening the integrity and very life of this Book of Books, because, beyond all doubt, it is our Lord's own challenge with reference to the divinity of His own words, and inferentially it must have been His method with reference to the Scriptures He used. Because, in the second place, the learned activity of Biblical critics, vast, imposing, patient, and, in a large measure, reverential, is in great danger of overlooking or underrating this Christo-ethical aspect of the subject, and sinking the Incarnate Word out of sight in the blaze of the stupendous linguistic discoveries of our time. The Bible is infallible in so far as it images the ineffable glory of the Son of Man, the Incarnate Son of God, and that glory will be opened to our groping vision in proportion as we make way for it in ethical demonstration and experimentation in life.

MISCELLANEOUS.

GREELEY'S ESTIMATE OF LINCOLN.

AN UNPUBLISHED ADDRESS BY HORACE GREELEY.*

Century, New York, July.

I FIRST met Mr. Lincoln late in 1848 at Washington, as a representative in the Thirtieth Congress—the only one to which he was ever elected. His was, as apportioned under the census of 1840, a Whig district; and he was elected from it in 1846 by the largest majority it ever gave anyone. He was then not quite forty years old; a genial, cheerful, rather comely man, noticeably tall, and the only Whig from Illinois—not remarkable otherwise, to the best of my recollection. He was generally liked on our side of the House; he made two or three moderate and sensible speeches which attracted little attention; he voted generally to forbid the introduction of slavery into the still untainted Territories; but he did not vote for Mr. Galt's resolution looking to the immediate abolition of slavery in the Federal district, being deterred by the somewhat fiery preamble thereto. He introduced a counter-proposition of his own, looking to abolition by a vote of the people—that is by the whites of the district—which seemed to me much like submitting to the votes of the inmates of a penitentiary a proposition to double the length of their respective terms of

* [About 1868, Horace Greeley wrote a remarkable address on Abraham Lincoln, which it is believed was never delivered. The MS. came into the possession of a former editor of the *Tribune*, and is now first published.]

imprisonment. In short, he was one of the very mildest type of Wilmot Proviso Whigs from the free States—not nearly so pronounced as many who long since found a congenial rest in the ranks of the pro-slavery Democracy. But as I had made most of the members my enemies at an early stage of that short session, by printing an elucidated exposé of the iniquities of Congressional mileage; and as he did not join the active cabal against me, though *his* mileage figured conspicuously and by no means flatteringly in that exposé, I parted from him at the close of the Congress with none but grateful recollections. There were men accounted abler on our side of the House—such as Collamer, of Vermont; Palfrey and Mann, of Massachusetts, and perhaps Schenck and Root, of Ohio—yet I judge that no other was more generally liked and esteemed than he. And yet had each of us been required to name the man among us who would first attain the presidency, I doubt whether five of us would have designated Abraham Lincoln.

As to the slavery question, I think Mr. Lincoln looked away from it as long as he could, because he feared that his recognizing slavery as the mainspring and driving wheel of the Rebellion was calculated to weaken the Union cause by detaching Maryland, Kentucky, and possibly Missouri from its support. "One war at a time" was his wise veto on every avoidable foreign complication; and in the same spirit he vetoed Frémont's, and Phelps's, and Hunter's, and other early efforts to liberate the slaves of rebels or to enlist negro troops. I am not arguing that he was right or wrong in any particular instance; I am only setting forth his way of looking at these grave questions; and the point of view from which he regarded them. To deal with each question as it arose, and not be embarrassed in so dealing with it by preconceptions and premature committals, and never to widen needlessly the circle of our enemies, was his inflexible rule. Hence when Congress, in the summer of 1864, named and erected an elaborate plan of reconstruction for the States then in revolt—which Bill was presented to him during the last hour of the session—he withheld his signature, and thereby caused its failure—not, as he explained, that he was adverse to the conditions proposed therein, but that he "refused to be inflexibly committed to any single plan of reconstruction"—while the Rebellion was still unsubdued, and while exigencies might arise in the progress of the conflict which could not be foreseen.

Mr. Lincoln, when I first knew him, was classed with the more conservative Northern Whigs on the subject of slavery. In 1848, he voted in Congress to lay on the table Mr. Galt's resolution, proposing instructions to the Federal District Committee to report a Bill abolishing slavery in said District. Ten years later, instructed by the Nebraska developments, he had advanced to the conception that "the Union could not permanently endure half slave and half free"—and that slavery, not the Union, would eventually have to succumb and disappear. On the 22d of August, 1862, in reply to an appeal from the pro-slavery policy which had thus far governed the practical conduct of the war, he gave an exposition of his war policy, which recognized the right to destroy slavery whenever that step should be deemed necessary to the National salvation—nay, it affirmed the *duty* of destroying it in such contingency. And it proved that the President was meditating that grave step, and clearly perceiving that it might—nay, probably *would*—become necessary.

His words, "I attempt no compliment to my own sagacity; I claim not to have controlled events, but confess plainly that events have controlled me," furnish a key to the whole character and career of the man. He was no inspired Elijah or John Baptist, emerging from the awful desert, sanctified by lonely fastings and wrestlings with Satan in prayer, to thrill a loving, suppliant multitude with unwonted fires of penitence and devotion. He was no loyal singer of Israel, touching at will his heart, and sweeping all the chords of emotion and inspiration in the general heart—he was simply a plain, true,

earnest, patriotic man, gifted with eminent common sense, which, in its wide range, gave a hand to shrewdness on the one side, humor on the other, and which allied him intimately, warmly, with the masses of mankind. I doubt whether any woman or child, White or Black, bond or free, virtuous or vicious, accosted or reached forth a hand to Abraham Lincoln, and detected in his countenance or manner any repugnance or shrinking from the proffered contact, any assumption of superiority or betrayal of disdain.

The chief moral I deduce from his eventful career asserts

The might that slumbers in a peasant's arm!

the majestic heritage, the measureless opportunity of the humblest American youth. Here was an heir of poverty and insignificance, obscure, untaught, buried throughout his childhood in the primitive forests, with no transcendent, dazzling qualities; one of the millions of strivers for a rude livelihood, who, though attaching himself stubbornly to the less popular party, did, nevertheless, become a central figure of the Western Hemisphere, and an object of honor, love, and reverence throughout the civilized world.

There are those who profess to have been satisfied with his conduct of the war, deeming it prompt, energetic, vigorous, masterly. I did not, and could not, so regard it. I believed then—I believe this hour—that a Napoleon I., a Jackson, would have crushed secession in a single short campaign, almost in a single victory. But the Republic needed to be passed through the chastening, purifying fires of adversity and suffering; other men were helpful to the great renovation, and nobly did their part in it; yet, looking back through the lifting mists of seven eventful, tragic, trying, glorious years, I clearly discern that the one providential leader, the indispensable hero of the great drama—faithfully reflecting, even in his hesitations and seeming vacillations, the sentiment of the masses—fitted by his very defects and shortcomings for the burden laid upon him, the good to be wrought out through him, was Abraham Lincoln.

FRUIT GROWING IN CALIFORNIA.

W. NEELY THOMPSON.

Belford's Magazine, New York, July.

IN my wildest dreams I never anticipated the growth of a business so modestly started, nearly forty years ago, and worked up to its present enormous volume by the energy of the Californians who followed the first lead. Least of all did I ever dream that I should eat here in the city of New York the remote offspring of the fruits I planted and propagated so many years ago—cherries, apricots, nectarines; Crawford peaches; Bartlett, Seckel, Burre, and Winter Nellis pears; Flaming Tokay, Muscat of Alexandria, Black Morocco, and Rose of Peru grapes, and many other varieties of choice fruits and grapes then unknown and since created by the enterprise of the fruit-growers who followed the pioneers.

But for California, the market of this city of New York, as well as all the cities east of the Rocky Mountains, would have been practically without fruit in the year 1890, for the crop east of the mountains was a failure. California came to the rescue and furnished the best of fruits at prices that came within the reach of even the poor. In five months of the year 1890, from June to October inclusive, 84,762 tons of fruit, ripe, canned, and dried, were sent by rail across the Rocky Mountains to the Eastern States. Fancy eighty-four ships, of a thousand tons each, loading with fruit for 130 working days, or a train of 4,238 cars loaded with fruit, and one begins to comprehend the quantity. Of ripe fruit there were 33,710 tons; canned goods, 28,966 tons—all the product of the orchards and vineyards of California. Besides, 10,867 tons of wine were shipped by rail. Statistics show the products of the orchards and vineyards of California for 1890 to have been \$28,000,000 in value, ranking second amongst the industries of the State.

This beats romance. And yet, with all this immense growth of fruit, the State is in its infancy, especially as to citric fruits.

Books.

WORK AMONG THE FALLEN, AS SEEN IN THE PRISON CELL. By the Rev. G. P. Merrick, Chaplain of H. M. Prison, Millbank. With an Introduction by the Venerable F. W. Farrar, D.D., F.R.S. 62 pp. 16mo. London: Ward, Lock & Co.

I CANNOT conceive of many places from which one can obtain a more extensive view of the world of human nature than that which is found within the walls of H. M. Prison, Millbank. All sorts and conditions of men and women, and more particularly women come there, and if the world did happen to get behind the curtain, and talk to and work amongst those who form the *mise en scène* it would find abundant reason to thank God that matters were infinitely better than they at first sight appeared to be. Altogether, I must have in my possession thousands of letters of a pleasant character, from those who were once in a prison cell, but who are now in various walks of life, earning for themselves a good report.

There is hardly an event of importance in public or social life, which does not send a ripple over our existence at Millbank.

The assembling and breaking up of Parliament, elections of all kind, trade improvement and depression, Derby day, the influenza, not to speak of dock, police, and other strikes, all affect us in an unmistakable manner. The loss of the Princess Alice with its seven hundred passengers, for example, sent us a great many inmates who had gone down to Woolwich to identify the bodies, got drunk, and fallen into the hands of the police.

It has been my practice during my connection with H. M.'s Prison Service to make shorthand notes of that which my charge has narrated to me about herself and her circumstances. I have thus the particulars of the lives of more than one hundred thousand women, and will now present some figures relating to sixteen thousand taken consecutively.

Of these 13,915 led an immoral life; and 7,682 of these were born in the four Metropolitan counties, and I am disposed to say that seven thousand can fairly be claimed by London; but the popular view that the East End of London is the cradle, and school, and home of the majority of thieves, drunkards and "fallen women" of the Metropolis is a mistaken one. In spite of its poverty, its destitution, its misery and squalor, it has a smaller criminal and dissolute population, not in comparison, but in fact, than any other large area in London.

[The returns for the several counties and Metropolitan Districts are next given in tabular form, and these are followed by another series of figures relating to the paternity of these 11,413 cases, from which it is gathered that 3,564 were daughters of carpenters, 364 daughters of farmers, 128 daughters of professional men, 66 daughters of artists, and 13 daughters of gentlemen. The next series of figures comprises the statements of 14,790 cases as to their trade or occupation in life. Of these domestic servants furnished 8,000 cases; barmaids, 1,050; governesses, 183; needlewomen, 2,667; trade girls, 1,617; street vendors, 166; theatre and music hall, 228; no calling, 838.]

With references to the offences for which the women have been sent to prison, I may state that 11,000 out of the 14,110 cases were sent to prison, directly or indirectly, through drink. I have not met many instances where women have taken to prostitution for the sake of intoxicating liquors, but not one woman out of ten can pursue that terribly exhausting life without a free resort to stimulants. I have not met one hundred women out of a hundred thousand who have said that they like their wicked and wretched mode of life; they loathe it, and drink is necessary to stifle their repugnance to it.

Of these 14,110 cases, 3,106 had been married, and 859 were widows. The married women had 2,372 children still living, while 546 were dead, showing a mortality of about 19 per cent.; but of 3,447 children born to unmarried women, 1854, or about 54 per cent., were dead.

[Here follows tabulated statements: (1) Of the age at which the women had first "gone wrong," showing that 11 were "seduced" before they were eleven years of age, and 175 between 30 and 50 years of age. (2) The period after beginning an immoral life before they got into the hands of the police, is also given in tabular form.]

When I commenced my work within the prison walls, I thought that every poor outcast was the victim of some man's brutal lust and heartless abandonment, but I soon found, on the authority of the women themselves, that this impression was all wrong. Out of

16,022 cases, 1,636 were betrayed under a promise of marriage, and being abandoned by seducers and relatives, saw no alternative but the streets. I believe that upwards of 11,000 of the number were led away by such allurements as:

"Nothing to do."

"Plenty of money."

"Your own mistress."

"Perfect liberty."

"Being a lady," as they say.

Most of the women who had been seduced, were seduced by men in their own rank of life; 11,920 of the 14,126 designated themselves members of the Church of England, 3,445 had been confirmed, and 335 had never entered a church or taken part in any religious service. It is remarkable that 773 of these women still attended church regularly.

As regards their secular education, I tested the powers of some 14,165 cases, and found that

3,237 women could neither read nor write.

2,293 were equal to the 1st standard.

3,104 " " " 2d "

4,721 " " " 3d "

1,260 " " " 4th " and many to the higher standards.

The rate of mortality among these poor creatures is terribly high, the average duration of a "life on the streets" being about three years and six months.

[Having presented his various statistics with running comments, the reverend author passes on to the discussion of remedial and legislative measures; and as remarked by the Venerable Archdeacon Farrar in his introduction, "he speaks with authority, because his facts are derived from long experience and patient toil."]

THE EVOLUTION OF ELECTRIC AND MAGNETIC PHYSICS. By Arthur E. Kennelly, Chief Electrician of the Edison Laboratory. 12mo, pp. 17. New York: D. Appleton & Company. 1891.

[This is one of a series of lectures delivered before the Brooklyn Ethical Association on "Evolution in Science and Art," this being the sixth of series. Following the lecture is an abstract of a discussion between members of the association about the subject of the lecture.]

UNTIL the progress of evolution prepares the human mind to usher in and reveal the mysteries of Nature, men are deaf, dumb, and blind to those mysteries.

Thales, of Miletus, twenty-five hundred years ago, noticed that amber, after being rubbed, attracted or repelled light objects, such as down or lint. He attributed this property of amber to some condition of life resident in the substance. This belief was ridiculed in subsequent times, but, perhaps, the future may show that Thales was not so far astray.

For twenty-two centuries after him no one suspected that there was any connection between the attracting or repelling power of rubbed amber and the lightning flash. To Dr. Gilbert, of Colchester, England, in his book "De Magnete," published in 1600, we owe the beginning of electric science. Norman and Boroughs, of London, in 1580 were the pioneers in magnetic science, although the attracting power of the loadstone was known to the Greeks, and the knowledge of the directive power of the mariner's compass is said to have been possessed by the Chinese long before the Christian era. The time was ripe for the new thought, and human intelligence stood ready to burst the trammels that bound it.

Slowly and against much opposition experimental physics developed the sciences of magnetism and electricity. The two, however, long stood entirely apart; and it was not until 1820 that their intimate relationship was scientifically demonstrated.

Gray and Wheeler, between 1720 and 1736, gave an extraordinary impetus to electrical science by showing that glass, resin, silk, and other substances were insulators or impervious to electricity, but that metals and liquids conducted it.

The discovery of the properties of the Leyden jar in 1748 was followed by Franklin proving between 1747 and 1760 that lightning was electricity. To Franklin and Canton jointly we owe the knowledge that electric force develops electrification in surrounding bodies at a distance, or by induction.

After these came the researches and results of Coulomb, of Caven-

dish, of Galvani, of Volta, of Sir Humphrey Davy, of Faraday, of Arago, of Joseph Henry of Princeton.

Morse succeeded in making his electro-magnetic system practicable in 1837 and the telegraph was fairly in operation in 1840.

Faraday, in the course of his masterly researches between 1830 and 1859, made his crowning discovery of electro-magnetic induction, which paved the way for the dynamo-electric machinery of the present time. The carbon arc light of Davy, though very useful for many purposes calling for intense illumination, was very costly while sustained by galvanic batteries. To produce it more conveniently and cheaply, the dynamo machine was slowly improved. The dynamo as it existed in the year of Faraday's discovery was little more than a scientific toy; at the present time dynamos are in operation that singly transform the mechanical power of a steam engine into electrical energy to the working value of five thousand horses.

The study of the arc light and its capabilities led to the search for an incandescent lamp. In the hands of Edison, the incandescent lamp became not only a possibility, but a practical success.

While originally the electrical activity seemed to be confined to the battery or conducting wires of a galvanic circuit, it is now believed that the ether surrounding these conductors plays fully as active a part in the process of conduction; and the mind sees free space no longer void, but filled with an active and responsive substance—the ether. It looks almost as if matter were inert in comparison with the ether which surrounds it.

The evidence in favor of the proposition that light is a vibratory disturbance in the ether of an electro-magnetic nature is such as almost to amount to demonstration. When this shall be generally accepted, the whole domain of optics and radiant energy will be enrolled as one department and property of electro-magnetic physics.

ADDRESSES BY PROFESSOR HENRY DRUMMOND, F.R.S.E., F.G.S., with a Brief Sketch of the Author by the Rev. W. J. Dawson. 138 pp., 12mo, cloth. New York and Chicago: Fleming H. Revell Company,

THE sketch of Professor Drummond is very brief, being condensed into sixteen pages. The editor observes that his attention was first drawn to Professor Drummond through an article on Evolution and Degeneracy in an obscure religious weekly; and beyond observing that he was born in Stirling, Scotland, and that he was the right hand of Mr. Moody in many of his great meetings in this country, there is little of incident in the sketch which is concerned mainly with his style and quality as a writer and a preacher; and with his theological position which, the author says, is broadly that of the Reconciliationist—a representative of modern culture, a child of the age who breathes its spirit. The subjects of the several addresses are (1) Love: the Supreme Gift: The Greatest Thing in the World. (2) The Perfected Life: The Greatest Need of the World. (3) Dealing with Doubt. (4) Preparation for Learning. (5) The Study of the Bible. (6) "First," A Talk with Boys. And if, as his biographer says, it would be too much to claim for Professor Drummond that he is an original thinker, it may certainly be said that these addresses indicate the power of putting things in an original manner. As a sample of Professor Drummond's style and treatment we append the following extract from "First." Three companies of the Glasgow Brigade were called upon to stand, and read in unison the text, taken from the reading lesson "Seek ye first the kingdom of God and His righteousness, and all these things shall be added unto you." The companies were then told to sit down and Professor Drummond proceeded with his address as follows:

"I have three heads to give you. The first is "Geography," the second is "Arithmetic," and the third is "Grammar." First, Geography tells us where to find places. Where is the Kingdom of God? It is said that when a Prussian officer was killed in the Franco-Prussian war, a map of France was very often found in his pocket. When we wish to occupy a country we ought to know its Geography. Now where is the Kingdom of God? A boy over there says "It is in heaven." No; it is not in heaven. Another boy says "It is in the Bible." No; it is not in the Bible. Another boy says "It must be in the Church." No; it is not in the Church. Heaven is only the *Capital* of the Kingdom of God; the Bible is the guide-book to it; the Church is the weekly parade of those who belong to it. If you would turn to the seventeenth chapter of Luke, you will find out where the Kingdom of God really is. "The Kingdom of God is within you"—within you. The Kingdom of God is *inside people*.

Then follows, in illustration, the story of a Highland soldier in Canada, who claimed to tread on British soil although thousands of miles from England, and the application "That wherever there is a boy whose heart is loyal to the King of the Kingdom of God, the Kingdom of God is within him. He next passed to the head of Arithmetic for the meaning of "added," and to Grammar to illustrate that "Seek" is in the imperative mood, a command to be obeyed.

THE GOSPEL OF SPIRITUAL INSIGHT; Being Studies in the Gospel of St. John, by Charles F. Deems, D.D., LL.D. 12mo, pp. 365. New York: Wilbur B. Ketchum.

[This volume is a commentary on certain passages from the Gospel according to Saint John. Many years ago, the author informs us, he wrote a book now called "The Light of Nations." Whole paragraphs of that book, as we are told, are inserted in the present volume. The views here propounded are based upon the belief in the literal truth of the Gospel. Evidently the present commentator does not in any case accept the assumed conclusions of the "higher criticism." We confine ourselves to a summary of the author's argument as to the genuineness and authenticity of St. John's Gospel.]

OUR Lord was crucified A. D. 30. Saint John died somewhere in the neighborhood of A. D. 100, having survived the Crucifixion of Jesus about seventy years. Saint John had a disciple named Polycarp, who died a martyr about A. D. 155, having survived his master half a century. Polycarp had a disciple named Irenæus, who became Bishop of Lyons about a quarter of a century after Polycarp's death, or about half a century after the death of Saint John. Irenæus relates that he had frequently heard Polycarp describe his intercourse with Saint John and with others who had seen the Lord. Polycarp, as Irenæus declares, described these things "altogether in accordance with the Scriptures, that is the Evangelists, including the Gospel of St. John." Irenæus points out that the writings of the Evangelists arose directly from the oral Gospel of the Apostles. He shows that the traditional teaching of the Apostles had been preserved by a direct succession of elders, which in the principal congregations could be traced man by man, and he asserts that this teaching accorded entirely with the evangelical and apostolical writings. He assumes throughout, not only that the four canonical Gospels alone were acknowledged among faithful Christians in his own time, but that this had been so from the beginning.

Let us suppose that the Gospel of Saint John was in the hands of the Christians about A.D. 80. If written then, it would have been fifty years after the close of the series of events which it narrates. This is possible. If Saint John gave this Gospel to the world, say A.D. 80, Polycarp most probably had it, and Polycarp's disciple, Irenæus, had it; from time to time both must have compared the words of the Gospel with the remembered words of Saint John and found them altogether in accord. Internal evidence and tradition united in assigning the authorship of this book to Saint John; and no one suggested any doubt for centuries after the book was written. At the close of the present century there is left but one objection, and this is based upon the inability of gross and sensuous minds to appreciate the spiritual beauty of the exquisite discourses in the Gospel.

AN ELEMENTARY HANDBOOK OF POTABLE WATER.

By Floyd Davis, M.Sc., Ph.D. Cloth, 118 pp. 12mo. Boston: Silver, Burdett & Co. 1891.

THE author, a distinguished analytical and consulting chemist, devotes this work primarily to the discussion of the impurities in drinking water that are oftenest the cause of disease and death. It is designed especially for the use of physicians, sanitarians, and chemists; but its simple scientific language renders it intelligible to every educated person, while the discussion, dealing with the organic and the inorganic bodies and substances in water, the living and dead organisms which influence health, beneficially or prejudicially, renders it a work of general popular interest.

Chapter I. treats of pure water, and defines the terms *pure* and *impure*, *wholesome* and *unwholesome*, from the sanitary standpoint. Chapter II. is devoted to inorganic constituents; Chapter III. to vegetable constituents; and Chapter IV. to animal constituents; Chapter V. presents in its twelve pages a remarkably interesting and instructive treatise on micro-organisms, showing patient study and extended research. Chapters VI., VII., VIII., discuss water supplies, natural purification, and artificial purification, and Chapter IX. describes clearly and with proper minuteness eight different systems for central filtration. An appendix, divided into two sections, closes the book. Section A treats of the *origin and home of cholera*. Section B presents four simple *qualitative tests* for impurities in drinking-water.

Each of these subjects is treated exhaustively, the conclusions of the advanced thinkers of the age being presented in clear, concise language.

The Press.

POLITICAL.

DEMOCRATIC PRESIDENTIAL ASPIRANTS.

Louisville Courier-Journal (Dem.), July 7.—The Democratic party is not so poorly off for a Presidential ticket next year as some people affect to think. An affirmative and irresistible issue in the reform of the revenue system and the reduction of the war tariff to a peace footing we have to stand on, and, likewise, a negative, but equally irresistible issue in the excesses of the last Republican Congress and in the ulterior plans and purposes of the Republican party. But a ticket! What about a ticket?

If those who make themselves unhappy on this point would only stop and think, they would discover that this is not so grave a matter, for personalities have never cut a very great figure in our National politics. The most popular American who ever lived, Henry Clay, was beaten by a man who had not been thought of for President twenty-four hours before he was nominated, and who had no personal entity at all. The most popular and magnetic of our modern politicians, James G. Blaine, was beaten by Grover Cleveland, to whom, whatever else were his virtues at the time he was elected, neither magnetism nor popularity could be ascribed. The individuality of the strongest man gets rather thin by the time it is flattened out over the whole country. Pierce, Lincoln, Hayes, and Garfield are living examples of successful after-thought nominees, to say nothing of Tilden.

When it comes to a final case of necessity, we may be quite sure that "the Lord will provide," as He always has done. In the meantime, let us run over some of the possibilities. Here is a good ticket, safe at both ends: For President, Grover Cleveland, of New York; for Vice-President, Horace Boies, of Iowa. Or this: For President, Grover Cleveland, of New York; for Vice-President, Isaac P. Gray, of Indiana. Or this: For President, Grover Cleveland, of New York; for Vice-President, William R. Morrison, of Illinois. All this, with the understanding that New York is solid for Mr. Cleveland.

In the event that it is not, and that in consequence we shall have to seek a candidate elsewhere, we must come West. Here the field is rather speculative than positive, though we have one man, who, next after Mr. Cleveland, embodies all that the Democratic party stands for, and embodies it with the first order of ability and a character of sterling integrity. How would this do? For President, John G. Carlisle, of Kentucky; for Vice-President, Roswell P. Flower, of New York. Or this: For President, John G. Carlisle, of Kentucky; for Vice-President, Leon Abbett, of New Jersey. Or this: For President, John G. Carlisle, of Kentucky; for Vice-President, Thomas M. Waller, of Connecticut. Or this: For President, Arthur P. Gorman, of Maryland; for Vice-President, Isaac P. Gray, of Indiana. Or this: For President, George Gray, of Delaware; for Vice-President, Isaac P. Gray, of Indiana. It is true, Mr. Carlisle lives at the south end of the Cincinnati and Covington bridge, but he is in no sense a Rebel Brigadier. He is known from one end of the land to the other as a conservative statesman of transcendent abilities, calm, enlightened and upright, and singularly just in all his mental forces. Nobody can doubt that he would make a good President, and give the country a safe, sound, enlightened administration.

But let us suppose that neither Cleveland nor Carlisle is available, how would this do? For President, James E. Campbell, of Ohio; for Vice-President, Leon Abbett, of New Jersey. Or this: For President, Horace Boies, of Iowa; for Vice-President, Thomas M. Waller, of Connecticut. Or this: For President, Wm. R. Morrison, of Illinois; for Vice-President, Roswell P. Flower, of New York. Or this: For

President, Isaac P. Gray, of Indiana; for Vice-President, Wm. E. Russell, of Massachusetts.

If none of these tickets will answer they can be separated, and any one of the Vice-Presidential suggestions can be advanced to the first place. If we can find nobody in the West—if Campbell is not re-elected in Ohio, nor Boies in Iowa—and if, in consequence, we have to go East, there is Pattison, of Pennsylvania, and Abbett, of New Jersey, and Waller, of Connecticut. What is the matter with any one of them?

Why, gentlemen the woods are full of Democratic possibilities. Those we have named are not even hid in the bushes.

NEXT TO CLEVELAND.

Boston Herald (Ind.), July 7.—It is, perhaps, hardly profitable to speculate upon an event so very unlikely to happen as the failure of the Democrats to nominate Grover Cleveland for the Presidency; but, should such a course be taken, we venture to predict that it will not be David B. Hill, but William C. Whitney, who will be made the candidate of that party. Mr. Whitney has elements which would make him a strong candidate, and he appears to be rising to considerable party prominence. No one has been mentioned so unpopular as Gov. Hill—if, indeed, Gov. Hill ever has been seriously thought of in this connection.

NEW YORK IN '92.

Harper's Weekly, N. Y., July 4.—The question of the necessity of the electoral vote of New York for the Democratic candidate next year is actively and widely discussed in the Democratic press. If one nomination would probably lose that vote, and another probably secure it, the latter would certainly carry the Convention. It is a misfortune for the party, therefore, that the two candidates chiefly considered are both from New York, and that the division of sentiment is very pronounced. Governor Hill has made himself master of a strong and efficient machine, while the friends of Mr. Cleveland trust largely to the logic of the situation. They anticipate a contest upon the question of tariff revision, and they naturally hold that in such a contest Mr. Cleveland is the inevitable party leader. The dependence of the Hill contingent is of another kind. It appeals to the party tradition and spirit by representing Mr. Cleveland as the Mugwump rather than the Democratic favorite. It will question his party popularity in his own State and suggest party alienation in the West because of his positive financial views. But the nomination should depend upon broad and general principles. The Republicans of Ohio, by nominating Mr. McKinley, have set a good example. They have presented a definite issue and a representative candidate. If the Democrats propose to make the word "Democracy" the issue, and run in a fog, they should nominate a candidate who is not a representative of distinct policies. But if they mean to ask the country to approve certain intelligible and beneficent measures, they should nominate a candidate whose name personifies them.

VAGARIES OF OFF YEARS.

Pittsburgh Commercial Gazette (Rep.), July 9.—The trouble with our Democratic contemporaries is that they base their Presidential calculations on the vagaries of off-year politics. The Republican States are the centres of political independence and free voting. If matters of local or State administration are unsatisfactory, Republican officials are turned out and Democrats put in. Local independent uprisings in several Western States, following the Presidential election of 1884, caused the Democratic managers to claim they would carry Michigan, Iowa, and some of the Western States in 1888. But those States all gave larger Republican majorities in 1888 than they did in 1884. Since 1888 other local independent uprisings have occurred, and the Democratic rainbow-chasers are again at work.

It is only under the strong impetus of national issues that the Republican party brings

out its reserve strength and shatters the calculations which Democratic newspapers erect out of the vagaries of off-year politics.

THE MISSISSIPPI CANVASS.

National Economist (Alliance Organ), Washington, July 11.—Doubtless one of the most vindictive political campaigns ever witnessed in this country is now being carried on in Mississippi. The political manipulators have awakened to a realizing sense of their danger, and are making desperate efforts to retain their position. The most bitter invectives have been hurled at the Alliance and its sympathizers. The Alliance is largely made up in this State of the intelligent portion of the Democracy. The initial declaration that the campaign should be one of education and discussion has been abandoned by the party leaders and a course of vituperation and abuse instituted instead. Every Democrat has been called into the State who has ever lived there; yet when Polk, Livingston, and Willets went there to assist in a legitimate campaign of education they were called invaders and abused without stint. This kind of intolerance will result in nothing short of a square contest between blind partisan domination and intelligent progress. The former may succeed for a time, but in the end must give way. The Democratic party is neglecting the opportunity of a century, not because of the unwillingness of the rank and file of the party, but through the egotism, love of office, and fatal partisanship of its leaders.

AN AMERICAN MOVEMENT.

New Nation (Nationalist Organ), Boston, July 11.—The People's party is spreading in States that are distinctively American in nationality. The so-called madness of the movement is indigenous. Thus, American Kansas and American Iowa have the disease more seriously than Swedish Wisconsin. Our capitalistic contemporary, the *New York Evening Post*, recently remarked:

The ridiculous financial ideas flourish most where the native element is strongest—in the Carolinas, where the foreign-born population is only about 1 per cent; in Georgia, where it is less than 7 per cent.; in Kansas, where it is only 11 per cent.; but hardly at all in Wisconsin, where the foreign-born population is over 31 per cent. of the whole. In like manner, when the greenback craze swept over the country, it was strongest in those States in which the native Americans are most numerous.

The sad-eyed student of finance does not seem to appreciate what it means, that native Americans are breaking away from the traditions of the banking house. Americans are not native-born fools, nor are they cowards. When whole States drift from the financial moorings of orthodox capitalism, it is time for financial experts to do more thinking and less talking.

DEMOCRATIC STRIFE IN OHIO.

Brooklyn Standard-Union (Rep.), July 9.—The implacable nature of the contest inside the Democratic party in Ohio is only just now understood by the country at large. There has been a general notion that Gov. Campbell has been a little too good for a Democrat, and got into a difference with a gang, which was much to his credit. But this is a very imperfect estimate of an unusual situation. The gang with which the Governor is at war consists of the most active men of the Democratic party, and they by no means admit that they are worse than other citizens. They are the people who nominated and elected Mr. Campbell, and as for virtue, there are several highly unrighteous persons laboring for the Governor. The idea that he is a reformer, and that the alleged gang is repulsive to him because composed of bad men, is a good joke. His enemies have by no means a monopoly of the current wickedness. The rascals who served their party up to the giddy edge of the abyss of the penitentiary are not solid against the good Governor. When he denounced the criminal gangsters the other day in Cincinnati, several of the worst of the lot were before him, smiling, shouting, and stamping approbation.

It was the personal policy of the Governor that turned Cincinnati over to the Republicans last fall, and saved the State to them in the general crash. The conditions are such that, while the Governor will probably be able to force his own nomination, it is exceedingly improbable that he will be elected. According to latest advices, his Democratic enemies are organizing a third party, that of Greenbackers, to run an old Democratic Greenbacker, that Campbell may be thoroughly ripped up, and will try to work a combination to win the Legislature. The scheme to start a Greenback party comes naturally to the Democrats of Ohio, for they are, with few exceptions, the wildest sort of inflationists, and have never missed a chance since the close of the war to go for reputation. It would satisfy Mr. Campbell's "gang" if they could defeat the Governor, at the same time casting so large a vote that McKinley's election would be by a plurality and not a majority, and at the same time give the Greenbackers the balance of power in the Legislature, insuring the election of a Peffer in place of Sherman. It is to carry out this plan of campaign that the New York Wall street Democrats are presently to be called upon to contribute. If they want inflation, repudiation, and confiscation, now is the time and this is the way to subscribe.

A PARALLEL.

Rural New-Yorker (Ind.), New York, July 11.—Why should the political papers be so everlastingly intolerant of the 2 per cent. land scheme favored by millions of farmers in the South and West to enable them to hold on to the land they already own; while many of them are loud in their praises of Balfour's Land Act now before the British Parliament, and supported by the whole Conservative party, though it provides for the loan of money by the English Government to Irish tenant farmers for a series of years at 3 per cent. interest to enable them to buy the land they now cultivate? Shall British Tories be more liberal than American Democrats or Republicans? Are American farmers who own their land less responsible than Irish tenants ambitious to own theirs? The security is to be the same in both cases, and 2 per cent. is only a tentative rate, which American farmers would doubtless willingly raise to 3 per cent. The *Rural New-Yorker* cannot altogether approve of this land scheme, to which it sees many grave objections; but neither can it approve of the outrageous vituperation of it.

CIVIL SERVICE REFORM.

Minneapolis Journal (Ind.), July 8.—If the eyes of the reform element of our country are not upon Commissioner Theodore Roosevelt, they ought to be. For it is very certain that the eyes of all the spoils-hunters and professional office-brokers and political corruptionists are upon him. For Mr. Roosevelt believes in civil service reform to the very bottom of his heart, and he has the courage of his convictions. Not long ago the Republican Association of which he is a member in New York threatened to pass resolutions alleging grave abuses in the New York Custom House. Roosevelt at once asked them to go into that structure and institute the most rigid examination as to the enforcement of the civil service rules. He took the investigating committee through every department. They failed utterly to prove their charges and had to retire in confusion. Senators Plumb and Gorman, who last winter renewed their charges of corruption against the Commission, felt the prick of Roosevelt's well-aimed spear. He demanded proof, and it has never been forthcoming, so Commissioner Roosevelt was justified in writing to these detractors in a tone of the bitterest sarcasm. Mr. Roosevelt's aggressive position is suggestive. He knows that the public sentiment favors civil service reform. The party which fights it, as an issue, will be whipped. The growth of the conviction that the agents and clerks of the Government ought not to have anything to do with politics, except to

perform their duties as citizens, is steady and pronounced. The Civil Service Act of 1883 will stand. Any party proposing its repeal will suffer. The only regrettable thing is that it does not extend through every department of the Government.

REFORM IN THE POSTAL SERVICE.

Philadelphia Record (Ind.) July 9.—Postmaster-General Wanamaker's new system of merit promotions, which is to be put into operation throughout the Post-Office Department, naturally creates consternation among the postal clerks in Washington—for of all men in the Government service the Washington employes are the most timorous, the most helpless, and the most conservative. Yet, if they be anything more than worthless barnacles, retained in their positions by influence, they should hail with acclaim a system which offers them a chance to earn advancement.

MICHIGAN'S ELECTION LAW.

Detroit Tribune (Rep.), July 8.—The new election law is one of the very few commendable measures passed by the late Legislature. The main feature of the new law is the provision for an official blanket ballot, containing the party tickets in parallel columns on a single sheet. The voter designates his choice by stamping a cross in a small square underneath the heading of the ticket, if he wishes to cast a clean ballot; otherwise he stamps crosses in small squares placed opposite the names of the candidates for whom he desires to vote and erases the names of those for whom he does not wish to vote. Spaces are left under each name for writing in the name of any person not a candidate upon the regular party ticket. These official ballots must be printed under the supervision of a board of election commissioners in each county. The expense is borne by the county treasury. The county clerk is charged with the duty of distributing the ballots, which are delivered to the inspectors of election, and not to party committees. Tickets nominated by the regularly called convention of any party will be placed upon the ballots, upon proper certification of the fact of nomination and the names of the candidates not less than twenty days prior to the election. The voter cannot procure a ballot except from the inspectors, and he is not permitted to carry a ballot away from the polling place. He must vote it or return it to the inspector. Bribery and intimidation will be extremely difficult under these provisions, if not altogether impossible. It will require unusual ingenuity on the part of the vote-buyer to get tangible evidence of the delivery of his goods, and without this evidence, the purchase of votes is a waste of money. Other sections of the law provide that it shall be unlawful for candidates or any other persons to furnish entertainment to electors, to spend money to procure the attendance of voters at the polls, or to contribute money for any other than the legitimate expenses of the campaign. Candidates and party committees are required to file sworn statements of money expended in the canvass.

WATTERSON'S TARIFF THEORY.

Charleston News and Courier (Dem.), July 8.—Several days ago the *News and Courier* asked: "What is the matter with Henry Watterson?" We can answer to-day for him: He's all right; and all right all the way through. He denies that he said in his recent address to the students of the University of Virginia that "the tariff question has lost much of its former importance." In order that he may make his meaning perfectly clear, Mr. Watterson says:

The reform of the robber tariff is now, has been for years, and must be, until it is reduced to a revenue basis, the one chief, engrossing interest in American politics, and he is no Democrat who entertains any other opinion.

No more emphatic declaration than this could be desired.

THE LOW MCKINLEY TARIFF.—The attitude of the Republican press toward the McKinley Tariff has changed so rapidly that its "protec-

tive features," the increases in duties, now find few defenders, and the Republican argument is confined to the lower taxes levied on certain articles by the law. Thus the *New York Tribune* says apologetically of the Bill, that "it has increased the duties on comparatively few articles," and that "a large number of reductions of duties were made, resulting in direct advantage to consumers." The concession that a reduction in duty is an advantage to consumers, coming even at this late day, is a welcome admission and is one more obstacle in the pathway of McKinley's campaign in Ohio.—*Albany Argus (Dem.), July 9.*

VERMONT'S VACANT SENATORSHIP.—Governor Page, of Vermont, proposes to call a special session of the Legislature, to meet at Montpelier, Aug. 25, to elect a United States Senator to the seat which Mr. Edmunds has resigned. But Mr. Edmunds says that there will be no vacancy till the date of his resignation, Nov. 1, and that the Governor must then appoint a Senator to serve till the next regular session of the Legislature, in October, 1892. Whenever and however his successor may be sent to Washington, it will seem to some people that there is still a sort of vacancy in the seat so long and so ably filled by Mr. Edmunds.—*New York Morning Advertiser (Dem.), July 11.*

A DWINDLING STATE.—Nevada has lost by death and emigration in the past ten years 16,505 of its sparse population, leaving only 45,761 inhabitants in all in that Radical rotten borough. By the next decade the number of inhabitants may dwindle down to such an extent that it will take them all to fill the offices. Then Nevada will be like Artemus Ward's celebrated military company, which was composed entirely of brigadier-generals.—*Richmond Times (Dem.), July 9.*

FOREIGN.

THE CARLOW ELECTION.

Boston Pilot, July 11.—The people of Ireland demand self-government, on the ground that they are fully capable of conducting their own affairs. We believe that they are. The fact that they are reconstructing their political machinery with marvellously little friction, considering all things, entitles them to the respect of the world. Mr. Parnell has submitted the political aspect of his case to the popular tribunal, and he must abide by the verdict. The Irish bishops have again pronounced most emphatically on the moral question, which, as any Catholic knows, is not in the least altered by his recent marriage. Should he commit the mistake of appealing to America for support, as he is said to intend to do, he will find that the friends of Home Rule in this country are not likely to depart from their policy of non-interference in his favor. The whole question is one to be settled by the people of Ireland. They are settling it, surely and wisely. In good time they will appreciate the discreet forbearance of their friends in America, who have no thought but for the best interests of the Irish cause.

A FINISHING STROKE.

Philadelphia Ledger, July 10.—If anything was needed to prove that Parnell's influence in the Nationalist party of Ireland is past, it is the result of last Monday's election in County Carlow. That is a community in which it was conceded that he might have an effective following. When, however, the voting day came, he not only failed of his anticipated triumph, but came out in such a pitiable minority as to amaze and humiliate his few remaining friends on both sides of the Atlantic. The Parnell candidate, Kettle, had but 1,539 votes, while Hammond, the anti-Parnell nominee, had 3,755—a majority of 2,216. The vote cast was not a full one—about 5,400 out of about 7,000—including about a thousand Tories; but the

anti-Parnell vote is a decisive majority of the whole constituency. If Parnell could not succeed in Carlow, he could succeed nowhere; and he, as well as all others, should see the impossibility that he can ever regain the confidence he so basely betrayed; or be regarded in any other light than as a mischiefmaker and hinderer, as the immediate destroyer of his country's bright opportunity for achieving the great object of Home Government within the year after the Salisbury-Hartington-Chamberlain Ministry should be overthrown. It is not now so sure that Home Rule will follow as promptly after that defeat of the Tories as it would have followed but for Parnell's treacherous misconduct, his shameless defiance of law and decency, his desperate disregard of the damage his course was doing to the English Liberal party that was committed to Home Rule. It is a satisfaction that Carlow has struck him the *coup de grâce*, and that he is dead and done for now as a leader in Ireland's National party.

PHYSICAL FORCE IDEA REVIVED.

New York Tablet, July 18.—Even his opponents were apprehensive at the outlook during the canvass. Yet he has been beaten by a majority exceeding the entire vote cast for his candidate. Nor does it appear that the clergy took a very active part in the contest, as they did at Kilkenny. The people wherever the ex-leader appeared during the campaign showed, as much by their indifference as by their opposition, that they had lost all faith in him. The lesson of the two recent elections, Kilkenny and Carlow, is that the Irish people have lost confidence in Mr. Parnell as a leader. Some object to him on the ground of moral unfitness, and others on that of lack of discretion. And that he has shown a lamentable lack of discretion since the divorce scandal cannot be denied.

As the Irish Parliamentary party now stands, we find two factions: the one with a leader who can command no following among the people; the other with a certain following, but with no leader. It would be difficult to conceive a case of more utter demoralization than now exists in Ireland. The *Tablet*, while acquiescing in the will of the majority, has all along contended that the national energies were directed into a wrong channel. Nor did it need any extraordinary perception to see that England would never grant to Ireland anything worth receiving, for the mere asking. The ruin of the Irish nation is England's policy to-day, even more than in the past, for her power and commercial monopoly are passing into other hands, and a restoration of the Irish nation would be ruinous to her interests. While other nations are exercising means to diminish emigration, England is using every device in her power to make Ireland an impossible place for Irishmen to live in. And, meantime, she is lulling the Irish people into a state of somnolence by her soothing promises of Home Rule. England will never grant any real Home Rule to Ireland, and two or three generations hence she ought not, for then there will be none left in Ireland but caretakers of an abandoned nation. With a diminishing population and an increasing emigration there can be but one result. And the cause of that result can be removed only in one way, namely, by the abandonment of fruitless constitutional agitation, and the adoption of the only effective means by which freedom and justice can be won.

THE NEWFOUNDLAND SETTLEMENT.

Boston Traveller, July 10.—The Newfoundland delegates seem to have made good their case with the British Colonial Office, and to have secured from Lord Salisbury important concessions. That of the withdrawal of the Knutsford Coercion Act must be regarded as the least important, since it was only withdrawn on the passage by the Colonial Legislature of a measure which accomplished precisely the same end. The three additional concessions they obtained, however, are not unlikely

to furnish in the end a satisfactory solution of the French-shore difficulty. When the delegates reached London the negotiations with France had gone no further than the reference to arbitration of the lobster issue, though Lord Knutsford had announced the purpose of the Government to proceed in the settlement of the whole controversy without consulting the Colony at all. The delegates by hard work were able to obtain at least a reversal of this decision, Lord Salisbury promising never to refer any other issue than the lobster question to arbitration without the Colonial consent. He promised to compensate all British factory-owners in case the decision of the pending arbitration went against them, and, what is of much more account, he promised the speedy establishment of a court to sit on the French shore, composed of English and Colonial judges, to pass upon all issues arising under the treaties. It is this final concession which, if promptly put into effect, promises an ending of the dispute at an early period of time, since the decisions of such a tribunal would inevitably favor the Colonial contentions. Newfoundland is to be congratulated upon the patience, skill, and persistency with which her delegates have pressed her claims, the outcome being a practical admission, on the part of the Home Government, of their full and complete justice.

SENTIMENT IN THE ISLAND.

Toronto Empire, July 9.—The report that the Home Government have come to a complete and satisfactory arrangement with the Newfoundland delegates may or may not be strictly accurate, but there is abundant evidence to prove that the excitement in the island has subsided, and that prospects for a final friendly settlement are brighter. The relations between motherland and colony are no longer so strained, and the enemies of the empire who looked for a successful issue to an agitation for annexation of Newfoundland to the United States are chewing the cud of bitter disappointment. Newfoundlanders were certainly angry at the aggressive measures of a foreign Power against the interests and integrity of the island, and the difficulties in which their country was involved assuredly constituted a real grievance. But hot words are not necessarily revolution, and recent utterances of Newfoundland papers give no countenance to the annexation idea. The *St. John's Telegram*, commenting upon some sensational screed in a Boston paper, says:

From some of the sentiments expressed, strangers to the colony would almost imagine that we were in a state of revolt against the mother country, and that the star-spangled banner would soon be waving in triumph over our public buildings. Those of us, however, who are better acquainted with the real state of feeling here think differently.

The *St. John's Herald* of June 30, declares:

The people of this colony are as proud of British institutions and as faithful to the glorious Queen who sits upon the throne of Britain as the inhabitants of any colony over which the British flag floats to-day, and whenever the need arises they will speedily and effectually crush those who attempt to seduce them from their allegiance.

This is good, healthy doctrine and indicates that if any Newfoundland politician thinks to emulate the course of Sir Richard Cartwright in Canada and betray the country to foreign domination, either openly or through the medium of a pretended commercial policy, or by wearing any other mask, he will have his work cut out for him.

THE QUESTION OF ALSACE-LORRAINE.

Volkszeitung, *New York*, July 13.—If the German Social Democracy protested at the time against the annexation of Alsace-Lorraine and continue to protest to this day, there are three essential reasons for their taking this position. First, there is the moral ground that the annexation was a gross violation of the rights of nations. Since sovereigns no longer personally own their respective countries, no nation can now assert a historical claim to a portion of another nation's territory. It is

only the people of a district that possess the right, the democratic right, to decide whether they shall belong to one territorial aggregation or to another, and there is no doubt how an overwhelming majority of the people of Alsace-Lorraine still stand, after twenty years, in regard to this question. Secondly, there is the political reason that, owing to the annexation, enmity is persistently and artfully sown between two nations that stand in the centre of European civilization and have every natural ground to aid mutually in its development. Thirdly, there is the practical motive for the attitude of the Social Democracy furnished by the fact, proved by the experience of two decades, that the annexation of Alsace-Lorraine has been a constant hindrance to the preservation of European peace, and the cause of continual disturbing alarms, a general clanking of sabres, unnatural alliances, like that of the French Republic with the Empire of the knout and Siberia, ceaseless armaments, and the introduction of expensive implements of murder.

LORD SALISBURY ON PREFERENTIAL DUTIES.

London (Ont.) Advertiser, July 9.—Lord Salisbury's recent speech in reply to a deputation of the United Empire Trade League was a masterpiece of evasion. The objects of the league briefly stated are: (1) To free the Empire from treaty engagements with foreign Powers which prevent the colonies from giving preference to British trade; (2) to summon an Imperial conference to consider the most practicable plan for bringing the various portions of the Empire into closer commercial union. Said Lord Salisbury:

If you give a preferential treatment—that is, a better price—to your colonies, it must be a better price than that which, with unrestricted competition, is obtaining now. A better price to the producer means a more disagreeable price to the consumer; and what we have to know is how far the people of this country would be disposed to support a policy of which, I imagine, the most prominent features are preferential taxes on corn, meat, and wool. I ask you to give to your propositions more sharpness and definiteness. You will never get your countrymen to consent to legislation of a vague or indefinite kind, especially on matters which concern their dearest daily interests. If they are to make a sacrifice, or if they are to depart from their previous policy in a manner which you convince them involves no sacrifice, they will, at all events, desire to know it in detail and to be thoroughly convinced of the soundness of the arguments by which you have arrived at the convictions you are urging upon them.

All of which glittering generalities constitute the only comfort extended by Lord Salisbury to those who hope to obtain from England "a more disagreeable price to the consumer."

A WHITE MINISTER TO HAYTI.

Frederick Douglass in an Interview in the New York Age (Negro Organ), *New York*, July 11.—That idea is based evidently upon the assumption, that more can be won from the fears of Hayti than can be obtained from the reason and good will of Hayti, and on the still further assumption that a white man will command compliance with his demands upon a black man more readily than a black upon one of his own kind. It is born of the thought that a black man stands in awe of the white and is confined more to our experience as a slave-holding people than to facts as they really exist in the history of Hayti. Hayti has shown that she cares no more for a white man than she does for a black, that she doesn't scare worth a cent. They demonstrated by the assertion of independence that they could look a white man squarely in the eye and never lower their chin an inch. There is nothing in it. Hayti has a half a dozen white diplomats in her capital to one colored, and she has yet to show one hair's breadth of deference more to a white man than to a colored man. Instead of being humiliated by the presence of one of her own color, it is evident that she is proud to do him honor. There is nothing that any white man has asked of Hayti, or is likely to ask of Hayti, in behalf of the United States, that will not be as readily granted if demanded by a colored man as by a white.

FINANCIAL.

SECRETARY FOSTER ON THE BILLION CONGRESS.

New York Recorder (Rep.), July 12—The appropriations made by the last Congress were, it is charged, larger in amount than has ever before been the case. Our Democratic critics have named it the Billion-Dollar Congress. We reply that this is a billion-dollar country. In every instance it will be found that such appropriations as were improper were supported as much by Democrats as by Republicans. According to the estimate of Senator Allison, the increase in the appropriations for the years 1891 and 1892 over the two years of 1889 and 1890 was \$170,000,000. Of this increase \$22,600,000 was for the postal service. If we bear in mind that the increase in postal receipts for the fiscal year 1891 over the fiscal year 1885 were \$22,560,000, it will be seen that this increase simply represents the growth of the country. In regard to the \$113,300,000 increase on account of pensions, I do not believe that the Democratic party as a whole is yet prepared to object to a suitable provision for those who imperilled their lives that the Union might live. Neither is the increased appropriation of \$11,000,000 for new ships and for the navy one to which any intelligent man will object, especially in view of events of recent occurrence. The increased appropriations for the Agricultural Department have already justified themselves in the revival of agriculture in every part of the land, and in the placing of our meat products on a firm footing in the markets of the world. The increase in the river and harbor appropriations is \$5,000,000. It is not probable that any Southwestern Democrat, at least, will object to the appropriation of \$6,000,000 for the improvement of Galveston harbor, nor will any one seriously denounce the increase of \$3,000,000 for harbor defense. No Democratic Governor has yet shown any reluctance to apply for his State's share of the \$15,000,000 appropriated for the refunding of the direct tax. The appropriations for public buildings were nearly \$500,000 less than in the Fiftieth Congress.

It is a favorite pastime of Democratic orators and editors to announce that the bankrupt Treasury will not be able to meet the obligations thrust upon her by the Fifty-first Congress. The present Administration has paid \$234,000,000 of the bonded debt of the country. Some time ago I ventured to make the prediction, speaking from a thorough knowledge of the subject, that we should have money enough to meet all the expenditures of the Government and add a handsome sum to that already paid on the bonded debt of the country. I am glad to take advantage of this opportunity to repeat the prediction.

Within the last ten days the Treasury Department has proposed an extension at 2 per cent. of \$51,000,000 of 4½ per cent. bonds; payment of which is optional on Sept. 1, in the hope that the National banks would be induced to buy them as the basis for the issue of additional circulating notes; and we have reason to believe that from the reception given to the proposition, we shall be able to add about \$25,000,000 in National bank notes to the circulation of the country. It is a matter for congratulation that the United States in this matter is able to show a credit higher than that of any other nation.

EX-SECRETARY SHERMAN ON SILVER.

Associated Press Dispatch.—Senator John Sherman, in a letter dated Mansfield, Ohio, July 7, says: I can appreciate the earnest demand of the producers of silver that the United States should pay \$1.29 an ounce for silver bullion, which in the markets of the world has been for a series of years worth only about \$1 an ounce, sometimes a little more, sometimes a little less. But I cannot appreciate why any farmer or other producer should desire that

the Government should pay for any article more than its market value. It would be much better that the Government should pay a dollar a bushel for wheat when it is worth less, but there is no sensible farmer but would desire the Government to embark in the purchase of articles it needs, like all other purchasers, at the market price. The distinction sought to be made in favor of silver is without just foundation. The Government now buys in the open market more than the entire domestic production of silver bullion, because it needs it for coinage and as the basis of Treasury notes. I gladly contributed my full share to this measure and would do anything in my power to advance the market value of silver to its legal ratio to gold, but this can only be done in concert with other commercial nations. The attempt to do it by the United States alone would only demonstrate our weakness. To the extent that the enormous demand made by the existing law advances the price of silver the producer receives the benefit, and to-day the production of silver is probably the most profitable industry in the United States. To ask more seems to me unreasonable, and if yielded to will bring all our money to the single silver standard alone, demonetize gold, and detach the United States from the standard of the great commercial nations of the world. The unreasonable demand for the free coinage of silver has nothing to do with the reasonable demand for the increase of the volume of money required by the increase of business and population of the United States. We have provided by existing law for the increase of money to an amount greater than the increase of business and population, but even if more money is required there are many ways of providing it, without cheapening the purchasing power of our money or making a wide difference between the kinds of money in circulation based on silver and gold. More than ninety-two per cent. of all payments are now made in checks, drafts, and other commercial devices. All kinds of circulating notes are now equal to each other, and are kept at the gold standard by redemption and exchange. Our money and our credit are now equal to, or better than, those of the most civilized nations of the world. Our productions of every kind are increasing, and it seems to me almost a wild lunacy for us to disturb this happy condition by changing the standard of all contracts, inducing special contracts payable in gold, and again paying gold to the capitalists and silver, at an exaggerated price, to the farmer, laborer, and pensioner.

AN ALLIANCE WHEAT CORNER.

Chicago Herald, June 10.—According to the circular of the Farmers' Alliance, now is the farmers' chance. It is the opportunity of his lifetime to do a grand stroke of speculating, and at the same time to wipe out the professional speculator. The circular tells the farmers that the world was never so short of wheat since the days of Pharaoh's lean kine. All Europe is on the brink of a famine, and this country is about the only source of supply. Even this country's crop is not going to be 600,000,000 bushels, as the professional bear speculators give out, but only about 500,000,000, or at the most 525,000,000 bushels. Therefore the farmers are exhorted to be their own Josephs, to build them bins of hired lumber, and to store their golden grain for a golden price, which is placed at \$1.35 in New York. There are reasons for thinking that the farmers may not realize the expectations which this circular seeks to kindle. One is that the stories of short crops in other countries are not definite. Such stories are sometimes circulated by those professional speculators whom the authors of this circular propose to crush. In the second place, there are other things to eat besides wheat, and, as a matter of fact, when wheat gets too high people live on other things. In view of these and other considerations, it may reasonably be doubted whether the farmers' organizations can succeed in cornering the market better than profession-

al speculators who have made a study of the whole field. No doubt they can produce an artificial scarcity for a time, but they will probably be defeated in the long run, as the professionals usually are.

THE AMERICAN HOG.

Brooklyn Eagle, July 10.—When our minister to France, Mr. Whitelaw Reid, depicted the virtues of American pork he added, by way of soothing the susceptibilities of Monsieur Ribot, that the United States, while protesting against the prohibition of the Yankee hog on the ground that it was unfit for food, would have no objection if the animal were included in a general tariff on pork. If Monsieur Ribot failed to appreciate the value of the suggestion its importance is likely to be realized in an unexpected quarter. The political alliance between Italy, Germany, and Austria has lately given birth to the idea of a tariff uniform in its rates and operation. There is now in session at Rome a commission engaged in accumulating data with reference to these commercial negotiations. One of the subjects certain to come under discussion is the embargo on our much misunderstood and much abused American hog. Well-informed persons believe that if the embargo is raised it will simply be replaced by a tariff prohibitory in its effect. The apparently harmless and fugitive suggestion of Minister Reid to Monsieur Ribot may become a great calamity to the simple toiler of the American glebe. And yet, if the exponents of Chinese political economy are not mistaken, the apparent calamity will prove a blessing in disguise, for does not the great Confucius say, "Happy is the nation that raises its own hogs and wont give nobody else none!" If the Dreibund does not care for us, why should we care for the Dreibund? Moreover, are not the sons of Latium seeking the American hog on its native heath and flaxen-haired tribes from the banks of the Elbe and Weser coming over here to eat their pork under the eyes of the American eagle? Indeed they are. If Europe can afford to refuse our pork at the risk of losing its population, should we complain?

SOCIAL TOPICS.

HOME VILLAGES.

Indianapolis Sentinel, July 8.—John W. Bookwalter, of Ohio, purposes to establish farm villages on his 60,000 acres of land in Nebraska. Mr. Bookwalter will build homes for every farmer who will agree to his conditions, and promise to work for the advancement of his project. The rent will be merely nominal. If at the end of a stated period the tenant has improved his opportunities, he can buy the home at a small price. He purposes to spend half a million dollars, if necessary, to carry out this enterprise. He says:

My idea is to collect in a small area, not in villages, but in little groups, so to speak. Let the houses be arranged regardless of streets or sidewalks, just so they are near each other. Then have the farms all about, encircling the homes. They need not be more than one-third of a mile distant, but don't have the farm land and the homestead together. This scheme is in vogue among the farmers of France, Spain, Italy, and Switzerland, and is a great success. I have talked with the rustics of each of these countries and told them of the American farmer's way of living, and they held up their hands in horror at such a thought.

The system of farm life in America was transplanted from England. In that country the village system does not exist because the soil is not owned by those who cultivate it. It is safe to say that if America had been settled by the Germans, French, Russians or other Continental nationalities, the village system of Europe would have been transplanted, and would be the prevailing mode of rural life to-day instead of the unnatural, isolated homesteads, aping the English estates of the landed aristocracy. It is not in accordance with the laws of nature that men should live isolated. Whenever men are found in their natural or wild state they are found living in groups or villages. The result of Mr. Bookwalter's experiment will be

followed with interest. It will point the way, as we believe, to the solution of a great social and industrial problem.

ELECTRICAL EXECUTIONS.

Christian Union, New York, July 11.—One year ago an execution took place in this State by electricity, under the law then recently passed substituting that method for the gallows. Since that time every method known to astute lawyers has been exhausted in the endeavor to prevent a repetition of that method of capital punishment. It would be difficult to prove that the owners of the electric patent whose principle is employed in this method of execution have been behind the endeavor to prevent the use of that principle in the death penalty, but there is very little doubt of the fact. Appeal after appeal has been taken, and stay after stay obtained, until at last the patience of the Courts was exhausted, and an intimation came from the Bench that a further continuance of this method of procedure was so inconsistent with the duty which lawyers owe to the public as administrators of justice that it might render them liable to public rebuke, if not to severer measures, from the Bench. We have no doubt that the substitution of electricity for hanging is an act of mercy; that if capital punishment is to be executed at all, the speediest and most painless method should be chosen; and, finally, that the provision of the law which some of the secular papers specially criticised is especially to be commended—that which prohibits the presence of reporters, and elaborate and detailed reports of the execution.

ALIEN LANDOWNERS.

Atlanta Journal, July 8.—A number of the papers of Texas are kicking vigorously against the law of that State prohibiting the purchase of lands in the State by aliens. They say that it operates a hardship in a way not intended—by prohibiting the native owners from selling their lands to foreigners, and thus diminishing their value. This question is an interesting one, and one that may become a subject of legislation in other States, or by the Federal Government. The acquisition and holding of large bodies of lands by non-residents or foreigners is certainly an evil, and a question for consideration is whether the interests of large citizen land-holders or public policy should be paramount in the determination of it. Texas has adopted the latter alternative, and yet we see that there is growing opposition to it. It is contended that the Federal Government has jurisdiction of all matters affecting the rights of foreigners in this country, and that the treaties of the United States are superior to State laws. Could not much of the evil be remedied by amendments to our immigration and naturalization laws? The policy of requiring all foreign immigrants to take out naturalization papers, or to institute proceedings for procuring them, before they are allowed to do business or to acquire a permanent domicile in this country, has been made apparent by recent occurrences. Should they be required to do this, the evil of foreign ownership of lands would be greatly lessened.

A JAPANESE INFUX.—Unless San Francisco is only treating itself to a scare, California is now threatened by a Japanese invasion. Under the operation of our present laws the Chinese population is diminishing, but the Japs are growing into a colony. If the Japanese question succeeds to the Chinese question, the solution will no doubt be found in the same methods that have rid us, properly or improperly, according to the point of view, of the Chinese. But it hardly seems likely that Japanese immigration will assume uncomfortable proportions. There was a small famine in Japan last year, but the country, though crowded, is not overpopulated, according to native ideas, and one famine does not make an exodus. What is more, the Japs are likeable people, and a great deal will be allowed to them. For their national characteristics we might welcome them gladly.—*Philadelphia Times, July 9.*

THE LIQUOR ISSUE.

BATTLE OF THE GIANTS IN NEW YORK.

The Voice, New York, July 16.—The following is taken from *Frank Leslie's Illustrated Weekly*:

Let us imagine that a Prohibition amendment were adopted by the State of New York, that all liquor licenses were abolished, and the saloons ordered to be closed by the mandate of the Constitution. Does any one think for a moment that in cities like New York, Brooklyn, Troy, Albany, or Buffalo the saloons would be closed? Would the local magistrates summon jurors, or be able to find jurors who would convict saloon-keepers of violating the statute?

Under the prohibitory laws of Kansas and Iowa, trial by jury is not necessary; the sale of liquor is enjoined as a nuisance, and dealt with summarily. In Maine, certain offenders are tried before juries, but the injunction clause is also operative. A prohibitory law in New York without the injunction clause would stand very little chance of being enforced in the larger cities. It was this that rendered the law a comparative failure in Rhode Island. But with an injunction clause, would the law be enforced in New York City? It is a question to be faced. In answer, we should like to cite an illustration. Sioux City, Iowa, used to be known as one of the toughest cities of the West. If there ever was a city where public sentiment was against a law, that city was Sioux City, and that law was the prohibitory law. When the Clarke Law went into effect in 1886, it soon became evident that there were teeth in it. It contained the injunction clause. Note the result. A mere handful of men and women, headed by Rev. Geo. G. Haddock and D. Wood, a lawyer, began proceedings to close the saloons. Were they laughed at? Not long. The entire liquor traffic of that city soon became desperate. They lay in wait for Haddock and shot him dead. But that did not save them. The proceedings were carried on, and resulted in closing every saloon. If, under such circumstances and against such odds, the law could be enforced there, we believe that it could be enforced in New York City, if the Legislature did its duty in framing the law. But the effect of a prohibitory law would in other respects be immediate and important. At present, the liquor business attracts capital because it is both safe and profitable. If a prohibitory law were passed, the business might remain profitable, but it would no longer be safe. No one could tell when the turn of public sentiment might come that would, inside of twenty-four hours, as in Topeka, sweep the whole business to destruction. As an outlawed business it would no longer have the attraction for capital that it now has. Give us a Prohibition majority in the State Legislature and we will go bond that we will make Prohibition prohibit in New York City within six months, despite saloon sympathizers in all the municipal offices. And we will not have to change a word in the State Constitution to do it.

A RETROSPECT.

New York Observer, July 9.—Who can read the first annual report of the Excise Reform Association and not understand that the organized liquor dealers can afford to scorn the power of public opinion and the press mainly because the only people who have interest enough to use it can not or do not unite in any serious endeavor to throttle the rum power? It is true that the infamous Stadler bill in the interest of all-night dive-keepers was defeated, the Roman Catholics joining earnestly in the agitation against it, much to the astonishment of the liquor-dealers. Then came the great Schaff bill, by which saloons were to be in full swing on Sunday from one till midnight, all-night bars were to be permitted wherever "public necessity" required, parents were to employ their children to get their liquor, policemen and others were to be prevented from detecting violations of the law, the Civil Damage Act was to be modified so as to prevent damage to the liquor-seller, and the saloons were to sell liquor near the polls on election

day. This is a mere outline of its worst features, and the outcry against it was so great that it was finally withdrawn. Then a third bill was introduced and passed, called by the report we have mentioned the Substitute Schaff Bill. It expunged some of the worst features of the original Schaff Bill, but retained others, such as the police spy section and the Civil Damage Act amendment, both vastly important to the liquor men. It is said to be even more dangerous than the original Schaff Bill, for while that sought to abrogate prohibitions and restrictions, this accomplishes the same purpose by destroying the machinery by which the law is enforced. In view of this brief sketch, we ask if it is not a fearful shame that the people of this State should be at the mercy of the will of the rum power in its legislation on this subject. It is a great encouragement that the secular press is no longer indifferent or subject to the liquor interest. But it only adds to the shame of the situation that rum in the Legislature is more than a match for the Church, the press, and all other moral influences.

MASSACHUSETTS LAW ON DRUNKENNESS.

Bonfort's Wine and Spirit Circular, New York, July 10.—The new law of Massachusetts for punishing drunkenness presents features worthy of imitation. It abolishes the distinction between first, second, and third offenses, and gives the Court discretionary power to imprison for each and every conviction, in its judgment, from one day to one year in the penitentiary, or from one day to two years in a reformatory. The law provides for probation officers, whose duty it is to investigate and report to the Court the record of each offender. Another new and admirable feature of the statute is a provision permitting the officer in charge, on the drunkard's request to draw up a statement to the effect that the offender has not been arrested for drunkenness twice before during the twelve months next preceding. This is signed by the arrested person, and the officer may release the prisoner. The case is then investigated by the probation officers, and if the statement turns out true nothing further is done.

ANOTHER INDORSEMENT.

Presbyterian, Philadelphia, July 8.—For our part, we welcome the movement in Massachusetts for making public drunkenness odious and criminal. The Legislature of that State, before its adjournment, passed a law treating it as a crime. The enactment is of a discriminating character and duly distinguishes between the different classes of drunkards, and has a humane and reformatory aspect, as well as a restraining and punitive character. The punishment is graded according to the degree of guilt incurred. The weak brother who, occasionally falling under the power of temptation, makes a public exposure of himself is not placed upon the same level with the habitual drunkard, who daily disgraces himself, or who is frequently arraigned before the police courts.

A DIFFERENT VIEW.

Toronto World, July 9.—Temperance agitators move in mysterious ways toward what they call a given end. The temperance people of Massachusetts are but giving a new application to the old belief that they can terrify or coerce drunkards into sobriety. It has never been done, but it is perhaps as well to try it in every possible way, for all admit the desirability of the result aimed at. But a temperance measure that allows the people two drunks apiece per annum must astonish our local Prohibitionists.

ECLECTIC PRINCIPLES.

Lyman Abbott in the Christian Union, July 11.—A false theory will destroy any reform which builds upon it; and the theory that wine is a forbidden fruit, and drinking is, in all social

conditions, a sin is a false theory. It contravenes the example of Christ; it is Mohammedan, not Christian. It must, therefore, be left to each individual to judge for himself when it is right to drink wine, or whether it is right to drink it at all. For his decision upon this question he is not to be judged by his fellow-Christians, either as a bigot because he is a total abstainer, or as a sinner against the law of God because he is not. Drunkenness is always and everywhere a sin; whether drinking is a sin depends upon circumstances. Whether the community can properly, without infringing on the liberty of the individual, prohibit all manufacture and sale of alcoholic liquors, is a political question. Such prohibition, however, can be sustained only on the ground on which, in time of socialistic excitement, all sale and carriage of dynamite ought to be forbidden, or in a time of epidemic hydrophobia all dogs at large might be condemned to be shot. Whether special remedies are called for by the exigencies of modern civilization—whether, in other words, temperance or total abstinence is the best weapon with which to fight the drink traffic and the drinking customs of to-day, is a question on which the wisest and best of men may and do differ. Any permanent temperance reform, however great emphasis it may lay on a Christian duty of total abstinence, must draw sharply and maintain stoutly the distinction between total abstinence and temperance, between drunkenness and drinking.

Finally, if any one ask me what I think the law of Christian love requires of the Christian in American society to-day, I reply that it seems to me to require a general abstinence; that is, the laying aside of all wine drinking as a means of social entertainment or personal luxury, and its retention only in so far as experience and observation demonstrate, as in some cases they do, its decided advantage to health in invigoration of vital powers for the better doing of God's work in the world. But I trust that this necessity belongs simply to the present epoch, and I am not without hope that we shall yet come to a time—though not in my day—when a pure wine can be used by society with no more seriously evil results than now are produced by the use of tea and coffee.

RELIGIOUS.

CHRISTIAN ENDEAVOR CONVENTION.

The Golden Rule, Boston, July 9.—Another year of the Christian Endeavor movement practically comes to an end with the tenth International Convention, at Minneapolis—the most notable and prosperous year in all the history of the Society. A year ago there were recorded 11,013 societies, with 660,000 members; to-day there are recorded 16,274 societies, with 1,008,980 members. This is a clean list; every society that has been transformed by ecclesiastical authority into a purely denominational society, or that has been compelled to change its name, has been taken off the list, while doubtless there are hundreds, and perhaps thousands, of genuine Christian Endeavor societies that have not been reported or recorded. Again, the attitude of almost every evangelical denomination is far more favorable to the Society than it was a year ago. The question of withdrawing the young people from the interdenominational fellowship of the Y. P. S. C. E. has come up definitely in several of the leading denominations, and, with one exception, it has been decided overwhelmingly and decisively in the negative. The churches of all denominations have come to see that a Christian Endeavorer is none the less loyal to his own denomination because of his affiliation with other young Christians. Again, the great progress in other lands than the United States and Canada should not be overlooked. There are now superintendents for this work in almost every land on the face of the globe; the recent Christian Endeavor campaign in England was especially encouraging; and the most gratifying news comes from missionaries and other Christian workers all the world over. Once

more, during the last year, at least 82,000 of the associate members gave their hearts to Christ, and joined the evangelical churches of America, influenced, as we may well believe, in large measure by their companions, the active members.

Of what use is a great religious convention of young people like that which to-day assembles at Minneapolis? The question is doubtless asked in a carping spirit by some, but with real perplexity by others. We do not expect to satisfy Mr. Gradgrind, or his class, that any advantages result. The blessings of such a gathering are simply incomputable, until a multiplication table is invented that can reckon the supreme value of spiritual gifts. It does seem strange, indeed, that any one can be found to raise the question whether such meetings pay for what they cost, when never a protest is raised against the hundreds of thousands of dollars expended upon an intercollegiate boat-race, or an international rifle-match. But these questions are raised, we are convinced, by those who never went to such a convention, or felt its uplifting power. Let such a person once attend such a gathering, and he will never again have a doubt concerning its value. He will feel the thrill in his own soul; the tone of his spiritual life will be permanently uplifted; and he will realize how the countless rills of blessing go singing on their way from the convention to every church in all the land that is brought into relationship with it.

MODERN BIBLICAL CRITICISM.

Christian Guardian, Toronto, June 10.—The great question of the Biblical criticism of the day is: "Is the Bible a supernatural revelation from God or merely one of the sacred literatures of the world, the natural outgrowth of the religious life of the Hebrew people, just as the religious literature of our times is an outcome of the Christianity of the age?" This latter view is extensively maintained in a way that destroys the authority of the Bible as a standard of faith and practice. This school of critics presents a different conception of the Bible from that which has been held by the Christian Church through its whole past history; and this lower conception cannot be accepted by the Church without causing a serious change in religious faith and life. If God's direct intervention in the history of ancient times be denied, the denial of His direct agency as the Answerer of prayer and the God of consolation in our modern life can hardly fail to follow.

There are some features of this free modern criticism which should not be overlooked in forming our estimate of the value of its results. There is a class with whom the liberal and progressive is regarded as the true, and the traditional and the historical as the false. Any theory which breaks away from the teaching of the past is welcomed and adopted, however feeble and fanciful the evidence by which it is sustained. This undue readiness to discard the traditional, and to accept theories which undermine the authority of the Holy Scriptures should make us cautious in following such leaders. The faith and interpretation which has the support of the best minds of the Christian ages is at least as likely to be true as the conclusions of men who decide between the old and the new in a partisan or partial spirit. A great deal of the modern criticism of the Bible is the product of an extreme habit of speculating and refining. Those who have not made a special study of this subject would be surprised to know how many serious conclusions have nothing but conjectural speculations to rest upon.

THE CONFIRMATION OF PHILLIPS BROOKS.

New York Tribune, July 12.—The report that a majority of the Protestant Episcopal Bishops have given their consent to the election of the Rev. Phillips Brooks as Bishop of Massachusetts may be premature, but there is not much doubt that it is substantially true.

The opposition to Dr. Brooks has had one good effect; it has shown to what depths of meanness and cowardice some "Churchmen" are willing to descend in order to destroy a man who does not pronounce their shibboleth. And it is a pity that the canons of the Church do not provide for the trial of such men for "conduct unbecoming Churchmen and gentlemen."

The simple fact is, the elevation of Phillips Brooks to the Episcopate marks a new and important epoch in the history of the Episcopal Church. It is not the triumph of a party; for the Bishop-elect belongs to no party, and was supported by men of all parties. It is rather the recognition of the fact that preëminent genius and leadership are to be no longer proscribed in the Church, and that something more is needed in a modern American bishop than the possession of a complete Episcopal trousseau, and an intimate acquaintance with the trivialities and puerilities of ritual. Phillips Brooks has for many years occupied the position of a leader of men, with an influence reaching far outside of his own communion. He is one of the great preachers of righteousness of this generation, who has made full proof of his ministry, not by unfolding to public gaze his ancient commission from the Apostles, but by reaching the hearts of men with the message of God's holiness, love, and goodness. For many years past the Episcopal Church has been standing in doubt at the parting of the ways, hesitating whether to retrace its steps back to the outworn ideals of mediævalism, or to cast its lot with the practical and progressive religious life of the present. The election of Dr. Brooks is by no means the only indication that it is striving to adjust itself to the thoughts and needs of its time.

MISCELLANEOUS.

LINCOLN, HAMLIN, AND JOHNSON.

Cincinnati Commercial Gazette, July 9.—The death of ex-Vice-President Hamlin is the occasion of an interesting controversy over the failure of that sturdy old patriot, to be re-nominated in 1864. Col. McClure, of the *Philadelphia Times*, says that it was due to the desire of President Lincoln to have a Southern man put on the ticket from considerations of political expediency, and the circumstances he details in support of this statement are specific and convincing. Col. McClure, then a Republican, was a member of the Pennsylvania delegation to the Baltimore Convention in 1864, and says the delegation had a conference with Mr. Lincoln, at the latter's invitation, during which he urged the nomination of Andrew Johnson. This has brought out a reply from Col. John G. Nicolay, private secretary and one of the late biographers of Mr. Lincoln, who telegraphs to Mrs. Hamlin that Mr. Lincoln's personal feelings were in favor of Mr. Hamlin's renomination, "but he persistently withheld any opinion calculated to influence the Convention for or against any candidate, and I have his written words to that effect."

It would have been natural for Mr. Lincoln, even with the kindest feelings for Mr. Hamlin, to wish a Southern man placed on the ticket with him. The nomination of a strong Union man from the South, Democrat though he was, might not carry any Southern State, but it would at least relieve the campaign of the sectional feature. That Johnson himself proved a great disappointment did not necessarily disprove the wisdom of Mr. Lincoln's theory. We observed that Mr. Dana of the *New York Sun*, Assistant Secretary of War under the Lincoln Administration, while not passing directly on the dispute, places Mr. Hamlin in that class of Republicans of whom Horace Greeley, Senator Wade, and Henry Winter Davis were among the most conspicuous who were not in sympathy with Mr. Lincoln's policy of conducting the war. If Mr. Hamlin belonged there Mr. Lincoln doubtless knew it, and this would give additional coloring to the claim that the great war President did not desire his associate of 1860 renominated.

A. K. MCCLURE'S REPLY.

Philadelphia Times, July 9.—I now repeat that, in obedience to a telegraphic request from President Lincoln, I visited him at the White House the day before the meeting of the Baltimore Convention of 1864. At this interview Mr. Lincoln earnestly explained why the nomination of a well-known Southern man like Andrew Johnson—who had been Congressman, Governor, and Senator by the favor of his State—would not only nationalize the Republican party and the Government, but would greatly lessen the grave peril of the recognition of the Confederacy by England and France. He believed that the election to the Vice-Presidency of a representative statesman from an insurgent State that had been restored to the Union would disarm the enemies of the Republic abroad and remove the load of sectionalism from the Government that seemed to greatly hinder peace. No intimation, no trace of prejudice against Mr. Hamlin was exhibited, and I well knew that no such consideration could have influenced Mr. Lincoln in such an emergency. Had he believed Mr. Hamlin to be the man who could best promote the great work whose direction fell solely upon himself, he would have favored Hamlin's nomination regardless of his personal wishes, but he believed that a great public achievement would be attained by the election of Johnson, and I returned to Baltimore to work and vote for Johnson, although against all my personal predilections in the matter.

FROM JOHN G. NICOLAY'S REJOINDER.

Open Letter to A. K. McClure.—Dare you venture the assertion that Lincoln was deceiving Cameron, deceiving Cook, carrying on a secret intrigue against Hamlin and another secret intrigue against Holt, and that on top of the whole he was writing a deliberate lie to us? That may be your conception of Abraham Lincoln, but it is not mine. That may be your system of politics, but it was not his.

MR. MCCLURE'S RETORT.

Letter to J. G. Nicolay.—Had Lincoln chosen to confide his wishes to another than myself, I would not have imitated his Secretary, and charged him with deceit and falsehood because he did not tell me all his purposes. He did not trust you with what you probably could not have understood had he told you, but that is no reason why you should accuse him of deceit, intrigue, and "writing a deliberate lie."

MURAT HALSTEAD'S OPINION.

Brooklyn Standard-Union, July 9.—Mr. Hamlin had served the purpose for which he was nominated at Chicago. His popularity in Maine aided to give the send-off to the campaign of 1860 that the Republicans wanted in that State. The nomination of the most famous man of his time in Tennessee in 1864 by the Republicans was an assertion of nationality. Mr. Hamlin was more than an accident, however. He was a consummate politician, and, when he left the chair of the Senate, became a member of that body.

Certainly it is in no sense discreditable to Mr. Hamlin that he had differences with Mr. Lincoln, and held to his position firmly. Mr. Lincoln was not an infallible man—all men are not to be judged forever by his judgment. He made as many mistakes as anybody, and did not hesitate for a moment to admit them. He knew that Chase was critical, but appointed him Chief-Justice. He knew Hamlin was impatient, but took it serenely. He knew what Wade and Winter Davis said, but felt his own strength, and put his trust in practical politicians. Those with whom he came in conflict most sharply were the Republican Radicals, but he dealt with them so wisely that before he was dead they saw his wisdom. He had just conquered all his own friends, as well as the armed enemy, when he was called away and spared the trials of reconstruction. That if he had lived that work would have been better done those who are best informed most seriously believe.

SENATOR HAWLEY SUMS UP.

Hartford Courant, July 11.—He (McClure) was one of Abraham Lincoln's confidential advisers. The President had a regard for him personally and a high opinion of his political judgment. We accept his testimony as final. It is corroborated by the recollections of Mr. Dana, then Assistant Secretary of War, and by the circumstance that Lincoln's bosom friend, the late Leonard Swett, of Illinois, was an anti-Hamlin man in the Baltimore Convention; but it didn't really need corroborating. The situation resolves itself to this: Colonel McClure knows what he is talking about. Mr. Nicolay thinks he knows, but is mistaken.

CHARLES A. DANA PASSES JUDGMENT.

New York Sun, July 15.—Mr. Lincoln was by no means a simple or a transparent character; and he was far enough from the crude, guileless, and mushy philanthropist which some people imagine him to have been. To inform the world that he thought it advisable to have with him on the ticket a Southern candidate for Vice-President who had formerly been a Democrat, would have been folly such as he was never known to commit. He was not only a great statesman, but a great and shrewd and all-considering politician also. Nothing was further from his character or his habits than to blurt out before the public that which prudence required to be kept in privacy. We have no doubt that Mr. Nicolay quotes him correctly as refusing to take any open part against Hamlin's renomination. He would not make unnecessarily or to any unnecessary person any declaration of the sort. Yet there has never been a doubt in the mind of every practical man who was really behind the curtain in that tremendous period, that Lincoln looked carefully about for a man to succeed Hamlin. General Butler, General Dix, Andrew Johnson, and, we dare say, two or three others, were very earnestly considered by the President. Johnson alone united the chief requisites. He was a Southern man. He had been a Democrat. He was, unquestionably, on the side of the Union, and had made sacrifices in serving it. He was accordingly fixed upon; and the fact that he was finally nominated is proof ample and positive that he was not only preferred by Mr. Lincoln, but that the preference was frankly expressed to the very few from whom Lincoln concealed nothing that bore upon the subject.

THE BARDSLEY STATEMENT.

Philadelphia Press, July 11.—Now that it is published, John Bardsley's "statement" proves to owe whatever importance it has had to the circumstance that it was withheld from publication. This farrago of charges from an exposed, embittered, convicted defaulter would never have had the slightest attention if it had not been solemnly sealed up and put in a safe. No facts are stated on Bardsley's own knowledge, no allusion is made to corroborating records, papers, or evidence; at several points it is contradicted by the sworn evidence of reputable witnesses, and at no point whatever does it throw the slightest light on the disposition of the enormous sum poured into the Keystone Bank, and disappearing in the custody of Marsh.

The solitary fact which can be deduced from these flimsy libels is that Marsh and Bardsley stood alone in the plans by which the Treasury was robbed and the plunder transferred to hiding through the Keystone National Bank. The loose charges which Bardsley makes have at least this merit—that they end the ingenious theory put abroad in other cities, that he has gone to jail promised a pardon by more powerful conspirators.

MR. WANAMAKER ASSAILED.

New York Evening Post, July 13.—The snares that Satan lays for good men are sometimes quite beyond belief. One peculiarity almost always noticed is that the good man is first approached on his benevolent side. His desire to be of service to his fellow-men is the

tempter's open door. First give him a chance to act the good Samaritan's part to one who has fallen among thieves and been left wounded by the wayside. Then let the wounded man turn out to be a thief, and let the good Samaritan, still desiring to benefit him, go into business with him in a perfectly innocent way. Most likely the thief will put up such a job on his benefactor that the latter will be constrained, *in justice to himself*, to do something or say something that the moral law does not exactly sanction. In this way the purposes of Satan will be accomplished and scandal be brought upon religion in the most unexpected manner. Mr. Wanamaker's case, as related by himself, is an apt but sad illustration of the devious ways of the enemy.

The bank being established and Wanamaker having identified himself with it in a good Samaritan way, he and Lucas went into a speculation together at Wanamaker's instance. Wanamaker himself calls it "the Reading stock deal." Undoubtedly this "deal" was to help Lucas rather than Wanamaker. Probably the same motives that led the latter to take an interest in the bank led him also to take an interest in the "deal." Lucas furnished collateral for his share of the "deal" and put it in Wanamaker's hands, and Wanamaker pledged it for money to carry on the "deal" with. This turned out to be overissued stock of the Keystone Bank. When the bank got into such trouble that the Comptroller of the Currency, if informed of its condition would have closed its doors, Wanamaker considered it due to himself that the bogus stock should be made good or taken off his hands before the crash came, and he told Marsh that unless this was promptly done, he should acquaint the Comptroller with the rotten condition of the bank.

It would be extremely interesting to know why the good man gave up this stock without being paid the amount that "justice to himself" required. When the wicked people refused to pay him any money, but went to the law officers themselves and told all about it, then (the world's people would say) he ought to have said: "I hold this stock for value; I came by it honestly, and I will hold it till the law takes it from me." But here his fighting mood deserted him. He had made war in spite of Mars. He now made peace in spite of Minerva. He was valiant as long as he thought that he was the only one to tell the Comptroller. When the Comptroller was told by the other people, he surrendered immediately.

All this shows how cautious we should be, even in our endeavors to help other people, knowing that the devil is always about and ready to pervert our most praiseworthy actions to bad ends. If Wanamaker had not lent Lucas the first thousand dollars, with that effusive benevolence that he describes as habitual to him, he would not have felt the subsequent yearning to continue to do him good. Consequently he would not have proposed the "Reading stock deal" to Lucas, and Lucas would not have taken the bank's money for that purpose. Very likely Lucas would have gone to the bad anyhow, being a worldly-minded man, but he would not have brought the embarrassments upon a spiritual-minded man which we all deplore.

WHERE JEWS ARE WELCOME.—The first European potentate who at once gave permission to come and settle down in his country was the Sultan of Turkey. He did not say the poor must stay away, as did our Solons in Washington; he did not cry out, with Mr. White, of London, "Sweating system" and "Reduction of wages;" he did not alarm the Turks with the bugbear of their cities being flooded with Poles. The Grand Turk, you see, has no business habits, does not count, speculate, reckon, cipher; he permits the fugitives and exiles from Russia, as he did in 1492 under similar circumstances, to come to Turkey and settle there. This calamity of the Russian Jews tears the false face of hypocrisy from the distracted countenance of this age of moral rotteness.—*American Israelite*, Cincinnati, June 25.

Index to Periodical Literature.

AMERICAN AND ENGLISH.

BIOGRAPHICAL.

- Fitzsimon (Father Henry). Irish Worthies of the Sixteenth Century. The Rev. Edmund Hogan. *Month*, London, July, 11 pp.
- Maynooth, Dear Old. Part III. Dr. P. A. Murray. By the Rev. Richard O'Kennedy. *Irish Monthly*, July, 10 pp. A Biographical sketch.
- Uncle Remus. O. K. *Irish Monthly*, July, 4 pp. A slight sketch of Rose Kavanagh, so widely known under her *Nom de Plume*.

EDUCATION, LITERATURE, AND ART.

- Hedda Gabler, On the Occasion of. Henry James. *New Review*, June, 12 pp. If we possess the unattainable, an eclectic, artistic disinterested theatre, it would be a point of honor to sacrifice sometimes to Henrik Ibsen.
- Homeric Problem (The). Is it Insoluble? *Lyceum*, July, 4 pp. Separates the Homeric poems into two divisions, and allocates those divisions to Europe and Asia respectively.
- Music Teachers (Professional *versus* Amateurs). Charles W. Landon. *Etude*, July. Essay read before the New York State Music Teachers' Association.
- Pianists, Education of. James M. Tracy. *Etude*, July.
- Piano-Forte Teaching. J. W. Andrewe. *Etude*, July.
- Prose, The Age of. *Lyceum*, 136 p. A Review of Prof. John Erle's English Prose.
- Stray Memories. Ellen Terry. *New Review*, June, 9 pp. Concluding Chapter of her Reminiscences of Stage Life.
- Woman's Rose (The). Olive Schreiner. *New Review*, June, 3 pp. A slight sentimental sketch.

RELIGIOUS.

- Preaching, The Science of. By (1) The Right Rev. the Bishop of Ripon; (2) The Ven. Archdeacon Farrar; (3) The Rev. Hugh Price Hughes. *New Review*, June, 14 pp.
- Primate's (The) First Confession. *Irish Monthly*, July, 3 pp. A Story of the Most Rev. Dr. Crolly's early experiences.

SCIENCE.

- Animal Bodies, Wandering Cells in. J. L. Kellogg. *American Naturalist*, June, 13 pp. Discusses the Phagocytes and their functions, and treats the germ theory of diseases very conservatively.
- Bahamas (The) Origin of the Avifauna of. Frank M. Chapman. *American Naturalist*, June. Largely West Indian, modified by the infusion of a slight Floridian element.
- Birth, The Mystery of. Grant Allen. *New Review*, June 9 pp. A popularized treatment of the subject of organic reproduction.
- Development in the Dark Room. T. B. Collier. *Photo Amer. Rev.*, July, 5 pp. The subject of development presented in plain language.
- Development of Photographic Plates. S. W. Burnham. *Photo Amer. Rev.*, July, 2 pp. Experiments with different developers.
- Genus Chlamydomorphus, (On the). Daniel D. Slade. *American Naturalist*, June, 8 pp. Discusses the physiological characteristics of the animals of this rare genus of Chilian mammals.
- Hypnotism, A Contribution on. The Rev. Henry Marchant. *Month*, London, July, 12 pp. Hypnotism is not to be considered marvellous; it is a phenomena due to natural causes.
- Irish Modern Declension, Studies in. *Lyceum*, July, 2 pp.
- Lantern Plates, Fourteen Kinds of. Comparative Notes on. Dr. A. Clifford Mercer. *Photo. Amer. Rev.*, July, 2 pp.
- Photographic Conference (the American), the First Annual Meeting of, Official Minutes of. *Photo. Amer. Rev.*, July, 3 pp.
- Photographic Conference (the American), The Official Notes of. *Photo. Amer. Rev.*, July 4 pp.
- Photography in the Marine Tropics. Ely Van de Warker. *Photo. Amer. Rev.*, July, 2 pp.
- Simian Tongue (The). Prof. R. L. Garner. *New Review*, June, 6 pp. The theory that articulate speech prevails among the lower primates, supported by recording their utterances on a phonograph, and reproducing them.
- Stereoscopic Effects with the Optical Lantern. Oscar S. Teall. *Photo. Amer. Rev.*, July, 5 pp.
- Vogt (Karl), and the Naturalists. Editors E. D. Cope and J. S. Kingsley. *Amer. Naturalist*, June. Defends the Naturalists' view of the agreement between the embryologic and paleontologic records from Karl Vogt's attack in the *Revue Scientifique*.

SOCIOLOGICAL.

- Encyclical (The) and the Economists. The Rev. Herbert Lucas. *Month*, London, 16 pp. Criticises the political economists, and affirms that the Encyclical *De Conditione Opificum* provides the basis for a sound system of political economy.
- Insurance (Coöperative) and Endowment Schemes. William Morse Cole. *Quar. Journal of Economics*, July, 24 pp. Represents the methods of the fraternal death benefit orders, the endowment orders, and the bond companies, as speculative and dishonest; the premia of new members being applied not for their own benefit, but for the benefit of older members.
- Papal Encyclical (The). *Lyceum*, July, 2 pp. No mere condemnation of Socialists or mere moral exhortation to end in talk, but an authoritative pronouncement for practical guidance.
- Political Economy, The Academic Study of. Charles F. Dunbar. *Quar. Journal of Economics*, July, 20 pp. Gives reasons for the remarkable development of political economy as an academic study during the last quarter of a century.
- Railway Rates, A Contribution to the Theory of. F. W. Taussig. *Quar. Journal of Economics*, July, 28 pp. Criticises Professor Cohn's Theory of Railway rates, as based on capacity of payment, and his consequent conclusion that public regulation of rates is imperative.
- Rent, The Doctrine of, and the Residual Claimant Theory of Wages. Francis A. Walker. *Quar. Journal of Economics*, July, 21 pp. Defends his views against the criticisms of Mr. Hobson and Professor Clark.
- Slaves (The) in Africa. *Month*, London, July, 10 pp. Personal experiences of Sister Marie Claver, of the Order of Our Lady of Africa.
- Subjects of the Day, Letters on. The Cardinal Archbishop of Westminster. *Merry England*, London, July, 70 pp. These are letters written by Cardinal Manning during the last five years upon the Social Question, Ireland, the Salvation Army, the Temperance Question, and others.

UNCLASSIFIED.

- Cactus Blossom. *Photo Amer. Rev.*, July. Illus.
- Duel (The). *Photo Amer. Rev.*, July, 2 pp. Illus.
- Gurkhas (The). A Fighting Race. Col. the Hon. N. G. Lyttleton. *New Review*, June, 11 pp. Dilates on the splendid fighting qualities of these little fellows whose courage is only equaled by their discipline.
- Naval Defense Act (The). Right Hon. Lord Brassey, K. C. B. *New Review*, June, 11 pp. Gives list of the English Navy in *esse*, and under construction, and argues that it is capable of coping with the combined fleets of France and Turkey.
- Newark Camera Club on An Outing. *Photo Amer. Rev.*, July, 4 pp. Illus.
- New Mexico, A Recent Lava Flow in. Ralph S. Tarr. *American Naturalist*, June, 4 pp. Describes a flow of basalt between Carthage and Fort Stanton, about fifty miles east of the Rio Grande, which is said to have submerged a Pueblo town.
- New York Harbor, Around. *Photo Amer. Rev.*, July, 6 pp. Illus. Just a hint of the fertility of this region in subjects for the skill of the artist of the camera.
- Night Blooming Cereus. *Photo Amer. Rev.*, July. Illus.
- Saulsbury Point. *Photo Amer. Rev.*, July, 2 pp. Illus.
- Yosemite, The Secret of. C. S. Sprecher. *Golden Era*, June, 3 pp. Discloses the secret of Yosemite's magic spell.

FRENCH.

BIOGRAPHICAL.

- Bashkirtseff (Marié). Comtesse d'Estienne. *Le Correspondant*, Paris, June 25, pp. 23. Comments on, with extracts from, the journal of M. B.
- Bernard (Saint), Eighth Century of. James Condamine. *Correspondant*, Paris, June 10, pp. 23. *Après* of the eighth century which occurs this year, the place which Dante gives to Saint Bernard in the *Divine Commedia* is vindicated.
- Grünne (General), the Prince de Ligne and Austria in 1809. Henri Welschinger. *Nouvelle Revue*, Paris, June 15, pp. 20. Biographical details founded on documents hitherto unpublished, vindicating the Austrian General Grünne.
- Hugo (Victor) after 1830. René Doumic. *Revue Bleue*, Paris, July 4, pp. 5. Analysis of a recent publication with this title.
- Loti (Pierre). René Doumic. *Correspondant*, Paris, June 10, pp. 13. Biographical sketch and criticism of the works of the French novelist who writes under this *nom de guerre*.
- Manin (Daniel). Ernest Legouvé. *Revue Bleue*, Paris, June 20, pp. 6. Recollections of the Italian Republican.
- Roumanille, Joseph. Frederick Lolié. *Nouvelle Revue*, Paris, June 15, pp. 3. Biographical sketch of a Provençal author who died recently, aged 72.

EDUCATION, LITERATURE, AND ART.

- Michael Angelo, The Last Judgment of. Emile Ollivier. *Le Correspondant*, Paris, June 25, pp. 27. Examination of Angelo's picture in the Sistine Chapel, and of the painter's career and motives.
- Paganism, The End of. C. de Meaux. *Correspondant*, Paris, June 10, pp. 9. Analysis of a recent book with this title.
- Painting (Religious) in France in 1891. Gaston Deschamps. *Revue Bleue*, Paris, June 10, pp. 5. First part of a critique of the religious paintings now on view in the two Salons of Paris.
- Roumanille, Two Tales of. Translation by Charles Maurras. *Revue Bleue*, Paris, June 10, pp. 3. Translation of two brief tales written by Roumanille, the Provençal author who died last May.

POLITICAL.

- Belgium, A New Form of Revolution in. Edgar Monteil. *Nouvelle Revue*, Paris, June 15, pp. 7. Arguing that universal suffrage now impending in Belgium will be a peaceful revolution.
- Franco-Russian Alliance in the Time of Napoleon I. A. Rambaud. *Revue Bleue*, Paris, July 4, pp. 6.

RELIGIOUS.

- Japan (The Real). *Le Correspondant*, Paris, June 25, pp. 26. The influence of Roman Catholicism on the manners of Japan.
- Persia, The Clergy in. Ahmed-Bey. *Nouvelle Revue*, Paris, June 15, pp. 12. Description of the Persian *Mollahs*, who among Mahomedans answer to the Christian clergy.
- Religious Contests, What Countries France Should Follow the Example of in. Henry Boissard. *Le Correspondant*, Paris, June 25, pp. 26. Recommending French Catholics to follow the example of Swiss, German, and Belgium Catholics.

SOCIOLOGICAL.

- Argentine Republic (The) and French Emigration. Albert de Chenclos. *Correspondant*, Paris, June 10, pp. 26. Dissuading Frenchmen from emigrating to the Argentine Republic.
- Encyclical (The). Emile Ollivier. *Correspondant*, Paris, June 10, pp. 17. Digest of the recent Encyclical by the Pope, which is highly praised.
- Magistracy (French) Future of. Adolphe Guillot. *Nouvelle Revue*, Paris, June 15, pp. 18. Second and concluding paper pointing out certain reforms in the French judiciary, considered necessary by the writer.
- Savings Banks for Old Age. Paul Lafitte. *Revue Bleue*, Paris, June 20, pp. 4. Examination of a bill for establishing banks of this kind now under consideration in the French Legislature.
- Savings Banks, Ordinary and Postal, in France. G. Carron. *Correspondant*, Paris, June 10, pp. 8. Account of the condition of these banks at the present time.
- Socialism (Christian). Henri Joly. *Le Correspondant*, Paris, June 25, pp. 33. Description of the Socialism advocated and practised by Roman Catholic theologians, preachers, and missionaries.
- Syndicates at the Bar of Public Opinion. Paul Lafitte. *Revue Bleue*, Paris, July 4, pp. 2. Arguments against limiting that liberty of coöperation which permits syndicates to be formed.

UNCLASSIFIED.

- Family Affection. R. Vallery-Radot. *Revue Bleue*, Paris, July 4, pp. 7. Pointing out the change which has taken place in the course of time in the manifestation by parents of affection for their children.
- Lisbon During the Festivals of the Month of June last. Philippe Berthelot. *Revue Bleue*, Paris, July 4, pp. 3. Descriptive article.
- Mangy Beast (A). Pierre Loti. *Nouvelle Revue*, Paris, June 15, pp. 4. Sketch of a mangy cat which the author found in the street, took home, and killed with chloroform.

GERMAN.

BIOGRAPHICAL.

Cornelius and Kaulbach in Düsseldorf. Hans Müller, I. Treats of the establishment of the Düsseldorf Art Academy, and of the influence on it of the painters above named.

Emperor Frederick and Bismarck. Editorial. *Grenzboten*, June, 5 pp. A review of their relations from 1861 onward as gathered from the recently published life of Max Duncker.

Karl Ludwig von Knebel, Unpublished Correspondence of, from 1772 to 1832. Karl Theodor Gaedertz. *Deutsche Revue*, July, IV. 10 pp. Continuation.

POLITICAL.

Finland. T. Mewins. *Grenzboten*, July, 8 pp. Traces the history of the country since its first connection with Russia in the time of Alexander I., and bewails the recent determined measures for its Russianization.

French Revolution (the), The Lesson of, for the Modern State. *Deutsche Revue*, July, 13 pp. Continuation.

Russian Budget of Receipts and Expenditure for the year 1891. *Russische Revue*, (1st vol. of 1891), 50 pp.

SCIENCE.

Vienna Medical School (The). A. Kronfeld. *Deutsche Revue*, July, 11 pp. Billroth's clinics. Teaching and learning. Progress of Medical Science, Bacteria and cells, Koch, Humanity, The hospital, Neubau's clinics.

SOCIOLOGICAL.

Civilization (Our), A Dark Chapter of. Editorial. *Grenzboten*, June, 8 pp. Discusses prostitution from the standpoint that all morality rests on the proper and natural relation of the sexes.

Historico-Philosophical Reflections (Eight). *Grenzboten*, June, 11 pp. Dwells on the influence of Greece and Rome on the development of modern States, and on necessary submergence of the individual in his party in constitutional States.

Political and Social Economical Problems, Review of. *Russische Revue* (1st vol. of 1891), 24 pp. Advance in price of land since 1861. Influence of the price of food products, and of colonization. The significance of rye culture, etc.

Protestantism and the Protestants in Russia before the Reformation: A historical investigation by Dm. Zvezajew. *Russische Revue* (1st vol. of 1891), 19 pp.

Prison System (the), Modern Development of, and the International Congress for Prison Management at St. Petersburg in 1891. A. Peters. *Russische Revue* (1st vol. of 1891). Conclusion.

UNCLASSIFIED.

Honolulu, A Week in. Kari-uds. *Deutsche Revue*, July, 12 pp. A sketch from the writer's diary of travel.

Railway Fares, Reform in. Editorial. *Grenzboten*, July, 6 pp. Discusses passenger tariff systems generally, and the recent Prussian proposals for the unification of rates all over Germany, the abolition of free baggage, and the establishment of cheap baggage rates.

Stenographic Nuisance (The). Editorial. *Grenzboten*, June, 7 pp. Recognizes the usefulness of stenography as a means to an end, but ridicules the pretensions of the Stenographers' Association.

Victoria, Queen and Empress. Janetta, Duchess of Rutland. II. *Deutsche Revue*, July, 8 pp. Continuation.

Books of the Week.

AMERICAN.

Britannica Answered and the South Vindicated. A Defense of the South against the Aspersions of the Encyclopædia Britannica. T. K. Oglesby. Alabama Printing Co., Montgomery. Paper, 50c.

Chattel Mortgages, the Law of, A Treatise on. Darius H. Pingrey. F. D. Linn & Co., Jersey City. Shp., \$6.00.

Christmas Book. Hezekiah Butterworth. D. Lothrop Company, Boston. Cloth, \$2.00.

Concord: Historic, Literary, Picturesque. George B. Bartlett. D. Lothrop Company, Boston. Cloth, \$1.00.

Five Hundred Dollar Check. Horatio Alger. Porter & Coates, Phila. Cloth, \$1.25.

Flowers (National). Fannie A. Deane. D. Lothrop Company, Boston. Hf. cloth, 75c.

Girls, Business Openings for. Mrs. Sallie Joy White. D. Lothrop Company, Boston. Cloth, 75c.

Half Year at Broncton. Margaret Sydney. D. Lothrop Company, Boston. Cloth, \$1.25.

Here and Beyond: Beautiful Words of Life. Compiled by Carrie Adelaide Cooke. D. Lothrop Company, Boston. Cloth, \$2.75.

Impressions and Opinions. George Moore. Charles Scribner's Sons. \$1.25.

Iron, The Chemical Analysis of. A Complete Account of All the Best Known Methods for the Analysis of Iron, Steel, Pig Iron, etc., etc. Andrew Alex. Blair. J. B. Lippincott Co., Phila. Hf. mor., \$4.00.

Null (The Late Mrs.). Frank R. Stockton. Charles Scribner's Sons. Paper, 50c.

Paul's Angel. Mrs. S. S. Robbins. Bradley & Woodruff, Boston. Cloth, \$1.00.

People (the), The Voice of: Containing the Declaration of Independence, Articles of Confederation, A History of the Administrations, Biographies, Statistics, etc. W. H. F. Henry. J. E. Sherrill, Danville, Ind. Cloth, \$3.75.

Pronaos to Holy Writ Establishing on Documentary Evidence the Authorship, Date, Form, and Contents of Each of its Books, and the Authenticity of the Pentateuch. I. M. Wise. Robert Clarke & Co., Cincinnati. Cloth, \$1.50.

St. John's College, Fordham, A History of. J. Gaffney Taaffe. Catholic Pub. Society. Cloth, \$2.00.

School and Playground. Howard Pyle and Others. D. Lothrop Company, Boston. Cloth, \$2.00.

Sermons (Interdenominational): A Series of Sermons Delivered in the Old John Street Methodist Episcopal Church, New York City, by Prominent Ministers of Different Denominations. Edited by the Rev. Wellesley Bowditch, D.D. Hunt & Eaton. Cloth, \$1.25.

Tariff and Customs Laws (the), Digest of: An Alphabetical Schedule of Rates of Duties; and an Appendix Containing Tables of Foreign Moneys, Weights, and Measures Reduced to U. S. Standard. New Copyright Law, etc. S. T. Morgan. Cushing & Co., Baltimore. Leatherette, \$3.00.

Under a Cloud. Jean Kate Ludlum. Robert Bonner's Sons. Cloth, \$1.00.

Verses. Celia Thaxter. D. Lothrop Company, Boston. Cloth, \$2.50.

Wife and Woman. From the German by Mary J. Safford. Robert Bonner's Sons. Cloth, \$1.00.

Will (The) and the Way Stories. Jessie Benton Frémont. D. Lothrop Company, Boston. Cloth, \$1.00.

Current Events.

Wednesday, July 8.

The University convocation is opened in Albany; George William Curtis presides. Hannibal Hamlin is buried at Bangor, Me. Miss Irene W. Coit, of Norwich, Conn., is notified that she will be admitted to Yale University; this the first time Yale has ever granted a certificate of admission to a woman. Ex-Secretary of the Treasury George S. Boutwell and his wife celebrate their golden wedding at Groton, Mass.

In the British House of Commons, the Education Bill passes its third reading. The French Chamber of Deputies adopt a Bill to establish a Government Labor Bureau. The result of the election held on Tuesday, at Carlow, Ireland, for a successor in Parliament to the late O'Gorman-Mahon shows a crushing defeat for the Parnellite candidate. Advice received from Guatemala state that ample instructions have been sent to the Guatemalan Minister at Washington to arrange for a treaty of reciprocity with the United States. A London magistrate fined the proprietor of the Pelican Club for selling tobacco and spirits to non-members; declaring, also, that the supplying of members of the club was illegal, as the proprietor had not been licensed; if this decision is confirmed, it will close many of the clubs in England. The Dutch Cabinet resigns.

Thursday, July 9.

The tenth annual International Convention of the Young People's Society of Christian Endeavor is opened in Minneapolis. The statistics of immigration at the port of New York, for the year ending June 30th, show that during that period the total number of immigrants landed was 405,604.

In the British House of Commons, Mr. Labouchere protested against the attitude of Lord Salisbury toward the Dreibund as likely to irritate France. The German Government permanently relaxes the Alsace-Lorraine passport regulations. The National Division of the Sons of Temperance of North America hold their forty-seventh annual session at St. Johns, N. B. The great strike of the Belgian miners, which has been in progress for seventy days, is ended. The Rev. Charles H. Spurgeon is weaker and delirious.

Friday, July 10.

University Extension is discussed by leading educators at the University Convocation in session at Albany. Ex-Gov. John P. St. John makes an address in the Tabernacle at Prohibition Park, Staten Island; in which he charges the Government with aiding the rum traffic. Postmaster-General Wanamaker appears before the sub-committee of the Finance Committee of Philadelphia City Councils, and denies Bardsley's charges. A report is received in Boston that the election of the Rev. Dr. Phillips Brooks to the Bishopric of the Diocese of Massachusetts is confirmed by the House of Bishops.

The Emperor and Empress of Germany are entertained at Guildhall by the Lord Mayor of London. Sir George Baden-Powell and Dr. Dawson, the British Commissioners, leave Ottawa for Bering Sea. At a meeting of leading citizens of Toronto, it is decided to erect a statue as a memorial of Sir John Macdonald, the estimated cost is \$50,000. The Convention of the Theosophic Society opens in London; Mr. Olcott presides. The Nation, a weekly newspaper of Dublin, suspends publication on the fiftieth anniversary of its establishment.

Saturday, July 11.

The President attends to public business at Cape May. Secretary Blaine says he is regaining health at Bar Harbor and will remain there through the summer. The programme of dedication of the Columbian Exhibition at Chicago is agreed upon. In an accident on the Midland R.R., of Colorado, seven passengers are fatally scalded. The 71st Regiment leaves the State Camp at Peekskill, and will be succeeded by the 12th. Transatlantic steamers sail from New York with unusually long passenger lists.

Emperor William reviews British troops at Wimbledon. Feuds in the Socialist party in Germany are becoming bitter. In France a Council of Ministers discusses the decree against American pork.

Sunday, July 12.

A number of Kansas Democratic editors declare against fusion with the People's party, and in favor of Cleveland for President. Fourteen thousand delegates are present at the session of the Christian Endeavor Society at Minneapolis.

Emperor and Empress William attend service at St. Paul's Cathedral, London, and in the afternoon visit Lord Salisbury at Hatfield House. An official dispatch from Chili states that the revolution is at a standstill, and that a plot to destroy the Government squadron at Valparaiso has been foiled.

Monday, July 13.

The President announces that he will not accept any invitations to visit places near Cape May. The physician attending Secretary Blaine says his patient is making decided progress towards entire recovery. The Treasurers of the State of Pennsylvania and the city of Philadelphia secure upwards of \$1,000,000, which was deposited in bank in Bardsley's absence by his chief clerk. Bids are opened in Washington for 100 big steel guns; no award yet made.

President Carnot is fired on by a madman in Paris, but is not injured. Count William Bismarck, second son of Prince Bismarck, resigns the office of Presidency of the Regency of Hannover. Emperor William leaves London for Scotland. The delegates to the International Congregational Council elect officers: President, The Rev. Dr. Bevan, of Melbourne, Australia; Vice-Presidents, Cyrus Northrup, President of the University of Minnesota; the Rev. Dr. A. H. Quint, of Boston, and the Rev. Dr. Rogers, of London. The result of the municipal elections of Metz shows that the Council consists of 23 Protestants and 9 Germans.

Tuesday, July 14.

The National Editorial Association opens its seventh annual convention at St. Paul. The arms and ammunition on board the *Itata* are formally labelled by United States Marshal Gard. The Afro-American League of the United States meets in annual session in Knoxville, Tenn., the separation of the races on railway trains is denounced. A decision of Judge Wallace is filed in the United States Circuit Court sustaining the Edison patent on the incandescent lamp.

The 102d anniversary of the fall of the Bastille is celebrated in Paris and throughout France. The International Congregational Council holds its first formal business meeting in Kingsweigh House Chapel. The Amsterdam Council rejects the motion for a temporary refusal of the grant to the Standard Oil Company for a ten years' lease of sites for the erection of oil tanks; the Chambre de Commerce et Fabriques supported the proposal. By order of the Roumanian Government the Roumanian frontiers bordering on Russia are cordoned with troops to prevent the influx of Hebrews fleeing from Russia. The annual convention of the National Educational Association of America is formally opened in Toronto in the presence of about 6,000 persons.

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